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ABSTRACT

The Social and Rehabilitation Service granted the Alaska Division of Public Welfare funds to train and employ qualified Native village people as paraprofessionals who could provide the social services needed while living right in the village. The Rural Areas Social Services Project (RASS), a demonstration and training project aimed at bringing public welfare services to Alaska's rural areas, was planned. Awarded $328,300 for the first year, operations began in December 1968. The project was awarded $426,500 for the second year. Nineteen Native human services workers and 2 supervisors were incorporated into the budget. The proposal also provided for evaluative research, which was implemented in July 1969. The Regional Research Institute in Social Welfare (School of Social Work, University of Southern California) and an investigator planned and conducted the evaluation. Evaluation was done by observations, field reconnaissance, and interviews with villagers and Human Services aides. Some of the highlights of the evaluation report, selected by the principal investigator, pertain to: RASS's operations, the evaluative research, case service actions, community development activities, supervisory and administrative supports, coordination functions, recruitment, training, and program effectiveness. (NQ)

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HUMAN SERVICES IN RURAL ALASKA:

HIGHLIGHTS FROM THE EVALUATION OF THE RURAL AREAS SOCIAL SERVICES PROJECT

Frances Lomas Feldman
University of Southern California

The Rural Areas Social Services Project and the Evaluative Research were made possible by a grant from the Social and Rehabilitation Service, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, to the Division of Public Welfare, Alaska Department of Health and Welfare.

The funds were made available under Section 1115 of the Social Security Act, Grant No. 337.

Drawing for the cover of this report was made by Mrs. Ruth Anderson, artist for the Alaska Department of Health and Welfare.

The photographs that appear in the center section of this volume were made from slides taken by the Human Services Aides with cameras supplied by the research team to record village "data," and by the principal investigator.

INTRODUCTION

> "The children play so quietly." "Oh sure," he grinned, eyes twinkling. "I tell 'em if not good, 'gussak' come take 'em away, maybe in stomach where child ~~makes fine meal. Not~~ you, ~~others~~. You like ride in sno-go?"

As he proudly conducted two researchers through his newly constructed cut-log house where three small impish-faced children huddled on the floor in play, now and again glancing shyly up and quickly away, this Eskimo villager compacted into a few short sentences what appeared to be a cluster of representative qualities among Natives in this region: humor, longstanding distrust and hostility toward whites (gussaks), courtesy, and responsiveness to innovations that are part of a modern world. The small glare from the single unshielded light bulb suspended from the center of the ceiling revealed a row of parkas hanging from nails and the stove from which the burning oil emitted its characteristic odor; outside a lean gray and white sled dog sat against the bright yellow of a snowmobile. A few feet away a white porcelain handwringer washing machine was outlined against the late-July light being rapidly suffused with fog rising from and swirling over the river.

And now the pilot of a small Cessna that had brought the researchers to this Kuskokwim River village was calling, "We'd better move out now; if we don't beat this weather rolling in, you'll be stranded here for a day or more." Into his plane crowded not only the two researchers, but also an anxiously solemn woman holding close the feverish lethargic infant grandchild for whom transportation to the United States Health Service Hospital in Bethel had been fortuitously provided. For the plane's arrival was unscheduled and unexpected: neither radio nor telephonic communication

had been available to appraise the "upriver" villagers that the plane had flown in their direction because the sleety and foggy weather precluded the planned visit to downriver villages.

Thus had begun the field reconnaissance phase of the evaluative research on the Rural-Areas Social Services Project--a demonstration and training project aiming to bring public welfare services to rural areas of Alaska.

The Social Security Act Amendments of 1962 had stressed rehabilitation and social services to public assistance recipients, and the 1967 Amendments called for separation of income maintenance from social service functions in the public welfare programs. Nevertheless, problems particularly peculiar to the rural areas of Alaska--containing about two-thirds of the public assistance caseload in this State--impeded implementation of these Amendments. The Alaska Division of Public Welfare, therefore, requested and was granted Section 1115 funds by the Social and Rehabilitation Service to prepare "a definite and specific plan to train and employ qualified Native people from the villages as subprofessionals providing the so much needed services while living right in the village." The proposal for the Rural Areas Social Services Project was the product of this planning. Operations began in December, 1968 with an award of $328,300 for the first operational year of the demonstration. $426,500 was awarded for the second operational year. Thereafter the positions of the nineteen Native human services workers and two supervisors were incorporated into the continuing budget and program of the Alaska Division of Public Welfare.

The proposal and the funding had provided for evaluative research. However, this aspect of the RASS demonstration was not implemented until mid-July, 1969, six months after the project had begun. Only then was the design developed and put into effect. The evaluation was planned and

conducted under the direction of the principal investigator in conjunction with the Regional Research Institute in Social Welfare of the School of Social Work, University of Southern California. The principal investigator carried another responsibility during the course of the evaluation: continuing consultation was provided staff of RASS and the Division of Public Welfare for the purpose of sharing with them observations and emerging findings that might be useful to them in the course of the demonstration.

While the principal investigator carried primary responsibility for data collection and analysis and interpretation of the findings, Dr. Genevieve Carter, Institute Director, and Dr. David Franklin, Associate Director, shared in the methodological aspects. Dr. Carter contributed particularly to the classification systems of services and tasks as well as other segments of design and analysis.

Dr. Elizabeth McBroom, Professor, University of Southern California School of Social Work, participated in various phases of the evaluation undertaking: the field reconnaissance, instrument development, analysis of interviews with villagers. In particular, she was involved in interviewing the Human Services Aides. Dr. Franklin collaborated in the latter phase.

Dr. Mary Louise Somers, Professor, University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration, also made a field trip, and classified and analyzed the reports and other materials collected in connection with the community development area of the evaluative research.

Field interviewing of villager-clients was done by Mrs. Lucy Jones Sparck, social work student at the University of Utah School of Social Work.

A full report of the evaluative research, "Organization and Delivery of Human Services in Rural Alaska: Evaluation of the Rural Areas Social Services

Project," was submitted to the Director of the Alaska Division of Public Welfare. That report was prepared by the principal investigator; substantial segments of the community development aspects were drawn from the report prepared by Dr. Somers of her analysis. Highlights selected by the principal investigator from the full report are presented in the following pages.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
INTRODUCTION		iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS		viii
LIST OF TABLES		x
Chapter		
I.	THE DEMONSTRATION AND TRAINING PROJECT: RASS	1
	1. The Setting: Villages and Villagers	2
	2. RASS Objectives, Structure and Staffing	7
	3. The Human Services Aides	12
II.	THE EVALUATIVE RESEARCH: DESIGN AND PROCESS	17
	1. Aims and Dimensions of the RASS Project Evaluation	17
	2. The Conceptual Framework	19
	3. The Evaluation Report	24
III.	CASE SERVICE ACTIONS AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES	25
	1. Goals and Expectations	26
	2. Social Needs, Problems, and Service Actions	30
	3. Community Development Activities	60
	4. Outcomes	77
IV.	SUPERVISORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORTS, AND COORDINATION FUNCTIONS	85
	1. The Organizational and Administrative Arrangements in RASS	86
	2. Supervisory Supports: Coordinators and HSAs	90
	3. Coordination	104

		Page
V.	RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING	108
	1. Recruitment	109
	2. Training	113
	3. Impact of Recruitment, Training and Staff Development on Performance Effectiveness	125
VI.	EFFECTS AND EFFECTIVENESS: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS	127
	1. Effectiveness	129
	2. The Models of Service	132
	3. The Villages and Villagers	152
	4. Administrative and Supervisory Supports	165
	5. Outcomes and Generalizability	172
VII.	RECOMMENDATIONS	175
APPENDIX A.	Tables 6 to 12	181
	Charts I, II	
APPENDIX B.	Forms for Data Collection	197
	R-1 Case Action Service Report	
	R-2 Community Action Report	
	R-3 Coordinators Report	
	Village Baseline Survey	
	Client Interview Schedule	
BIBLIOGRAPHY		211
NOTES ON PHOTOGRAPHS		213

LIST OF TABLES AND CHARTS

TEXT TABLES

		Page
1	Human Services Aides: Selected Characteristics at Beginning of Employment	14
2	Case Service Action Reports Showing Number of Clients Receiving or Not Receiving Money Aid	36
3	Classification of Needs/Problems Reported as Case Service Action Reports (R-1)	38
4	Distribution of Case Service Actions by Category of Service Approach	50
5	Service Tasks Performed by HSAs as Reported on Case Service Action Reports, by Service Linkage and Ranked Clusters of Tasks	53

APPENDIX TABLES AND CHARTS

6	Population Receiving General Assistance and Changes in Public Assistance Caseload 1969-1970
7	RASS Villages, Primarily Indian or Indian-Eskimo
8	RASS Villages, by Religions Practiced in Duty Stations and Selected Other Villages
9	Number of Case Action Reports (R-1) by Human Services Aides
10	Community Development Reports (R-2) Submitted by Human Services Aide, by Village
11	Classification of Needs and Problems Entered on Case Service Action Reports (R-1), by Service Linkage
12	Service Actions in Ascending Order of Complexity, by Service Linkage

Chart

I	Ranking of HSA Tasks in Ascending Order of Difficulty
II	Ranking of HSA Tasks in Ascending Order of Difficulty by Eleven Aides

CHAPTER

I

THE DEMONSTRATION AND TRAINING PROJECT: RASS[1]

> In the remote, rural areas of Alaska the basic problems of public welfare recipients are not much different from those which most other persons in these areas experience. In fact, in some respects, welfare recipients may have an advantage other persons in the community do not have. At least they have a steady cash income. There are not really many alternatives to welfare assistance. Employment is mainly seasonal and dependent on the quality of the hunting and fishing opportunities of the year. Steady jobs are few and far between and are mainly connected to maintenance of airport and federal facilities. Many Natives are still living at the subsistence level side by side to the white man's affluent money economy. The absence of an economic base appears to be at the root of most social ills. The past has witnessed a practice of encouraging welfare recipients to remain in the village on the basis of financial considerations and on the assumption that most welfare recipients are unemployable. Naturally, social services within the framework of the Social Security Amendments stressing rehabilitation would have to take a completely different approach.[2]

What form and direction could such an approach take? Who could succeed, with what tools, in altering the bleak picture presented in the above excerpt from the proposal to undertake the effective provision of social services in remote villages in rural Alaska? The strong interest of representatives of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

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[1] This abbreviation--RASS--will be used throughout the report to designate the Rural Areas Social Services Project, which in some documents also is entitled Rural Alaska Social Service Project.

[2] "The Rural Areas Social Services Project," A Proposal for a Demonstration and Training Grant, p. 1.

in social service delivery patterns in rural areas reinforced the determination of the staff of the Alaska Division of Public Welfare to pursue the effort to assist villagers and villages to cope with the hardships confronting them.

This chapter offers a brief description of the setting for the demonstration, the objectives it sought to attain, and the personnel and structural arrangements through which these objectives were to be achieved.

1

Villages and Villagers

> "But how do you get around?"
>
> "Sometimes, maybe in July, August if water and weather not too bad, I use skiff. After freezeup, snogo. Maybe fly on mail plane. Some still use dogsled. But many times, I walk in summer; is only way. Like last summer, some people were in fishcamp eight miles from my village. It's eight hours walk. It took two days to get over there and two days to go home. I have to sleep out. When I wake up there is musk ox. No revolver. I wait; he goes, then I go."
>
> "It seems to me life in the villages is pretty rugged. Why do people stay there? You are young; why do you?"
>
> "We born there; that's why we live there. It is our home!"[1]

---

[1]Excerpt from tape of proceedings of "What's New and Creative in Service Delivery" in which the Aide from Toksook Bay and the Aide from Holy Cross participated as panelists. The Conference on Social Service Delivery, Evaluation and Demonstration, held April 26-28, 1970 in Pacific Palisades, California, was under the joint auspices of the Regional Research Institute in Social Welfare of the University of Southern California School of Social Work, and the SRS Regional Office in San Francisco.

The responses made by this coastal Eskimo Human Services Aide as his fellow Aide, an Eskimo-Athapaskan Indian from the interior, solemnly nodded agreement, was met by deep silence. For the dignity and conviction in the soft reply left no doubt with the listeners that here was epitomized the oneness of man and nature, of man coming to terms with the awesomeness of his environment, demonstrating the adaptability fundamental for survival in a centuries-old partnership wherein the Native has pitted his ingenuity and skill to wrest the means for the essentials with which to meet his survival needs: food, shelter, clothing. And in the very presence of the two Aides were discernible simultaneously a devotion and loyalty to the land that had nurtured them and their forebears, and a commitment to bringing to its people new ways and techniques for coping with the problems associated with healthy continued accommodation to living in one of the most rugged regions under the flag of the United States.

These two Aides and the other seventeen live in the rugged 60,000-mile triangle that stretches from the Bering Sea eastward. This vast region of barren subartic tundra contains two great river systems: the mighty Yukon and the gigantic Kuskokwim, both treacherous, eating away at their banks and causing subsidence of the adjacent land. It is along these two rivers, their numerous meandering tributaries, and the Bering Sea that the RASS target group of approximately 12,000 Natives[1] live in scattered isolated villages ranging in size from 25 to 600 persons. The single large community--Bethel--has a population of 2,000 and is the trading, social, and economic center for the 66 villages, 50 of which were included in the

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[1]The term Native is employed in this report to include Eskimos, Athapaskan Indians, and mixtures of these ethnic groups. Its use follows the Bureau of Indian Affairs practice of designating as Native a person who is at least one quarter Eskimo, Indian, or both.

RASS demonstration.[1]

Most of the Native villages in the RASS project were Eskimo; some were Athapscan Indian; and others contained both or mixtures of both. Not only are there ethnic differences among these groups of Natives, there also are cultural and linguistic differences from village to village although their life styles have much in common. Both Eskimo and Indians have depended upon the biotic resources for subsistence harvest in order to sustain life. This reliance in particular has been on the land and water wildlife, for land anywhere in Alaska that is suitable for cultivation is in very limited supply; in the RASS triangle it is almost non-existent.

Income from paid employment is the exception rather than the rule: opportunities for year-round work in the villages typically are limited to positions such as school maintenance man, postmaster, village store manager, possibly a school cook or teacher aide; seasonal employment generally consists of work in canneries or fire fighting. Food gathering activities provide basic subsistence for more than half the work force that is jobless most of the year. Indeed, it is fairly common for whole families to move into a fish camp during the summer fishing season, the entire family devoting its energies to this subsistence enterprise. Many families stretch their income by trapping and other activities of food gathering.

A number of factors have affected the ability of the Native to maintain himself and his dependents adequately by traditional subsistence activities. Ecological changes in combination with the encroachment of commerical

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[1]Thirty of these are located along the Kuskokwim River and 20 along the Yukon. The major reason for exclusion of the others from the scope of the RASS project was difficulty of access in relation to Bethel, the location of the District Office of the Division of Public Welfare (DPW).

fishing and hunting have affected both the source of current supply as well as food that could be prepared and stored for meeting family needs through the stark months between "freezeup" (usually in October) and "breakup" (usually late May). Relatively high incidences of serious accidents, health and mental health problems have led to the death or continuing severe disability of the father, thus reducing the family's economic self-sufficiency. Limited opportunities in the villages for education and/or work and vocational training have contributed to a marked departure of young people to more urbanized centers as well as to barriers impeding efforts of older adults to attain or retain economic independence.

To the extent that there is recorded history of the people in this remote region of Alaska[1], it is a history of accommodation to change imposed by weather and climate, biotic resources, missionaries and traders, government agencies like the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), ravenous rivers requiring relocation of villages, and by other elements. But potential for positive realistic change had long remained unfulfilled because of the paucity of resources available or accessible to these remote villages--remote from each other as well as from other Alaskan centers of population. The absence of medical care other than via the services of a medical aide in some villages or the occasional visit of a public health nurse or a rare visit by a doctor, the total unavailability of hospital or outpatient care except in Bethel or Anchorage, the necessity for children

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[1] Literature and reports about the Kuskokwim and Lower Yukon villages are conspicuous in their unavailability, with the exception of studies done in and about Bethel and Napaskiak. Village baseline surveys made by the Aides for 22 villages were a rich source of historical description and of information about contemporary life. These are generously cited in the full report of the evaluative research (especially chapters IV and VII).

to be boarded in Bethel or Mt. Edgecumbe (1200 miles away) or in another State if they are to attend high school, the almost non-existent resources for adult or vocational training or job placement--the social and economic implications of facilities for coping with these and other needs are exacerbated by the absence of facilities for communication and/or transportation.

No roads link villages; in fact, except for Bethel and a few of the larger villages, there are no roads or streets. Modes of surface transportation tend to be in the form of snowmobiles, dog-pulled sleds, boats, or feet. Rapid transport is confined to aircraft, mostly operated by bush pilots—and not all villages have airstrips on which a plane can land. Other means for communication with the outside world also are limited: a few of the RASS villages have BIA radios, located in the village schools and available during the school year for limited emergency use--weather permitting. No telephones are to be found outside the town of Bethel or the village of Aniak. Mail service may be infrequent and whimsical.

Supplies are brought into the villages by air--or carried by villagers in planked boats powered by outboard motors, dog teams, or tracked snowmobiles. Heavy goods and bulk deliveries of food or clothing for the village store depend upon the yearly visit of the Bureau of Indian Affairs freighter, North Star, usually in June. Understandably, costs for purchased food items, fuel products for transportation, heating or cooking, or other goods are relatively high; in August, 1969, food costs in Bethel were 82 percent higher than in Seattle. This fact becomes particularly significant when considered in the light of the limited sources and amounts of earned income, the reliance of essentially independent families upon

various forms of public assistance[1] (including Food Stamps) for cash income, the prevalence of health, behavioral, sanitation, and other serious social problems confronting the villages and villagers.

2

RASS Objectives, Structure and Staffing

The Goals

Concerned with the difficulties imposed by factors of manpower and distance, geographic as well as cultural, it was the intent of the Alaska Division of Public Welfare to utilize the medium of the demonstration project to recruit and train Natives, indigenous to villages in particular rural areas, to become social service assistants. They would live and work in their home villages, in some instances extending their helping services to neighboring villages. It was intended that these Native social service assistants--later called Human Services Aides (HSA)[2]--would address themselves to a variety of tasks centering around the delivery of financial and social services and the undertaking of community development.

Specifically, it was expected that the social service assistant, or Human Services Aide, would become knowledgeable about the categorical public assistance programs and the Food Stamp program, interpreting policy and making "eligibility decisions around the Declaration Process." It was anticipated that he would have responsibility "to identify problem areas and, under close supervision, will recommend a social services plan that

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[1] See Table in Appendix for village population and assistance case loads.

[2] The official payroll title eventually became Public Services Aides (PSA) but the HSA term is retained throughout this report (as is actually the case in current practice in the agency).

incorporates welfare social services for the individual in terms of financial assistance, child welfare, family planning. rehabilitation, etc., and for the community in terms of community planning goals and objectives." With regard to the latter, the HSA was perceived as a person who would work with the village council and residents, inventory personal and village resources, "act as a link between the village community and the service agencies," and "promote individual and community self-help efforts."[1]

Two other objectives were outlined in the proposal for RASS. One was the involvement in planning, priority-setting, and plan-implementation of the respective village councils and of a policy advisory committee to be created on a base of wider representation of population and interests than the council of a single village. The second was directed to the coordination of efforts and resources of the State, federal, and other organizations which, in their several ways, serve the same population groups; it was "hoped that eventually representatives of other service agencies on an overall statewide Project Advisory Committee would create a means at the policy level toward this coordination of similar efforts."[2] While the HSA was explicitly charged with working with village councils, achievement of the coordination goal and work with the proposed advisory committees would be the responsibility of "project staff."

The Staffing Pattern

The project proposal called for a project director, a training supervisor, two (social worker) coordinators, ten Human Services Aides from

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[1] The proposed role of the Social Services Assistant (HSA) is delineated on pp. 8-9 of the prospectus submitted for funding.

[2] Project Proposal, Op. Cit., pp. 10, 11.

the Kuskokwim River area, and ten Human Services Aides from the Lower Yukon River area. By contractual arrangement with the Anchorage Community College, the training of the Native recruits would be provided by an instructor and an assistant teacher to be employed and supervised by the College. At no point during the life span of RASS as a demonstration project did the personnel picture, in terms of classes, qualifications, and numbers of personnel actually match the pattern projected in the original plan--although, as will be shown later in this report, this very fact added to the import of some of the overall findings.

The first seven months of the project saw three successive project directors. The third had been the training supervisor for RASS, so that some continuity at the top level was assured, albeit brief. Shortly thereafter, the Division of Public Welfare's newly employed Chief Staff Development Supervisor acted as the project's director. He continued henceforth to provide the project with administrative supervision and leadership although a project director was employed in November, 1969 and remained with RASS in this capacity until the demonstration phase came to a close. Each person who filled the director's position was the possessor of an MSW degree and, generally, considerable pertinent experience.

The two coordinators, who among other project duties were to carry responsibility for supervision of the social service assistants (Human Services Aides) had come through the State merit system from recent experience in the Work Experience and Training program of the Division of Public Welfare. Both had been in Alaska for a period of at least several years (one for many) and had worked in various capacities with Eskimo villagers. They were with RASS from its beginning to its point of termination.

As planned, ten Kuskokwim River area villagers were recruited as

Human Services Aides in February, 1969 (Group K); they entered the training phase of RASS the following month. Only nine villagers were recruited from the Lower Yukon River area (Group Y). They began the first training phase in June, 1969. One resigned in August and was replaced immediately, this new HSA moving directly into the training phase already in process. These nineteen Human Services Aides were still in the program when the demonstration as such was concluded; they then became State employees of the Division of Public Welfare.

The training position remained unfilled from the early stages of RASS until January of 1970. Then, for nine months, the position was occupied by a social worker with an MSW degree who had been living in Bethel. She was stationed in the Bethel RASS office, where the two coordinators and a RASS clerk were housed.

Training

Each group of Aides (Group K and Group Y) participated in three time-limited training phases comprising an intensive nine-month training program, two of these constituting "academic training periods" separated by on-the-job training in the villages to be served. For each group the initial academic training took place in Bethel; the second academic period of training was in Anchorage. The Aides remained in these respective communities for the duration of the training centering in them.

The teaching in Bethel and in Anchorage was conducted largely by an instructor with two years of experience in public welfare agencies as well as some other kinds of brief experiences. She had been recruited from another unit of the Alaska Division of Public Welfare. For a short time at the outset of Group K's Bethel training she had the assistance of a teacher able to speak Eskimo. Again, during the Anchorage stages, she had

assistance from a Native Eskimo assigned to the project by the Anchorage Community College. Supervision was provided the instructor by a member of the College staff, a social worker by training and long experience; expertise in certain content areas was supplied through lectures given by representatives of various agencies or governmental departments.

During the last year of RASS--following the Anchorage training phases--smaller and larger group training sessions were held in Bethel or centrally-located villages with the training supervisor and/or the Project Director and staff development personnel from Juneau.

The Organizational Arrangements

The HSAs were accountable directly to the two coordinators in RASS. While the coordinators were expected to work closely with District DPW personnel, their line of responsibility was directly to the Project Director who, in turn, consulted with and reported to the Division's Chief Staff Development Supervisor; he supplied the Project Director with administrative supervision. The Project Director maintained a close working relationship with both the District Representative (the highest ranking position in the Bethel District office and responsible for the Bethel DPW operation) and the Regional Representative, within the scope of whose responsibility the Bethel area lay. When clarification was required with regard to differentiation of roles, responsibilities, and vertical or horizontal relationships of RASS and other DPW personnel, the Chief Staff Development Supervisor-with or without the Project Director, depending upon the circumstances--undertook this task. The District Representative and the Regional Representative were regularly involved in planning or decision-making with respect to policy or procedural changes or innovations.

Advisory Mechanisms

Advisory committees were perceived as valuable in RASS's process of setting priorities and implementing planning for service-delivery and community development and, accordingly, provision was made for the formation of several committees drawing from different sources. One such committee was to evolve from involvement of village councils as advisory to the HSAs in their respective villages: representative from the individual village councils would ultimately form a committee that would be advisory to the district operation. Also, an advisory committee on policy would be developed, utilizing representatives of Native village councils as well as of associations in the Bethel District.

In actuality, a somewhat different course was followed. A group of persons representing voluntary and governmental organizations was convened once at the outset of the demonstration to consider with RASS administrative staff the goals and approaches of the demonstration project. An interagency committee was formed in December, 1969, and met several times during the subsequent operational year. The expressed interest of the Governor in making the appointments to an overall advisory committee of citizens led to the creation of a Governor's Advisory Committee. Because the appointments were not completed until November 1970, this committee representing Native and certain other citizen interests was not able to meet more than twice before the conclusion of the RASS demonstration.

3

The Human Services Aides

> The history of the village is not written and is story-telled by the older folk, dating back to about 1825-50....The village life has never changed, patternly changing with age and getting new....Early days the

> houses were igloos, made out of wood frame and covered with grass and sod, partially dug under ground....There is no longer a fear of long winter to starve the people for they are now looking up to the aids of white-man, welfare, transportation, and jobs....1970 is to have more changes. Housing will come in and people will have planned pre-cut house built. This I would like to see go up with running water and sewage.
>
> ....From Human Service Aide's History of Hooper Bay

Who are the Natives selected as agents of potential change through direct services that might aid an individual or family to cope more effectively with his economic-social-emotional problem, or through community development actions seeking to help the village to cope with its economic and social problems?

Different ways were utilized to recruit Aides stationed in either the Group Y (Yukon) or Group K (Kuskokwim) villages. Nevertheless, in many ways the individual Aides reflect characteristics of their individual villages--particularly with regard to education and work experience.

All of the Human Services Aides who completed the training phase of the RASS demonstration are Eskimo, with the exception of one who is Indian and another who is Indian and Eskimo. With one exception - the Aide assigned to Bethel - all were born in the villages designated as their respective duty stations. Selected characteristics of the 19 Human Services Aides at the commencement of this RASS Project employment are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Human Services Aides: Selected Characteristics at Beginning of Employment (N=19)

Characteristics	Total	Group K	Group Y
Male	16	9	8
Female	3	1	2
Ages:			
22-23	2	1	1
26-27	4	3	1
30-33	5	1	4
37-40	4	1	3
48-52	3	3	-
59	1	1	1
Married	13	6	7
Single	5	3	2
Divorced	1	1	-
Education			
5 or less years	2	2	-
6-7 years	6	5	1
8-11 years	7	1	6
12 years or high school grad.	3	2	1
Some college	1	-	1
No. of children in home			
None	8	5	3
One	1	1	-
Two	2	-	2
Three	3	3	-
Five	2	1	1
Six	2	-	2
Eight	1	-	1

The educational achievements among the Aides in the two groups of villages were evident to some extent in the reports they prepared for the research teams as well as for others; with certain exceptions, written and oral use of English was considerably more limited among the K Group Aides, these Aides coming from villages in which English is not the dominant language.

The work experiences of the HSA vary considerably in length, continuity, and occupational nature. Too, it was strongly representative of the work opportunities available or the fact that few are available in the respective villages they represent. Some had less than a year paid employment, some had ten or more years. The seasonal nature of the work was apparent: fishing, fire fighting, hunting, cannery work. One trainee had been an institutional aide, one a teacher's aide, and another had been a health aide.

Some of the Aides either formerly or presently carried leadership roles in their respective villages. Three of Group K had been welfare agents; none of the Y group had such experience. On the other hand, while only one of Group K was reported active in his village council (as a council member), four of Group Y were actively involved in their local councils. One was serving as secretary and two as president, and one other previously had held the council presidency. Two women Aides in Group Y were married to members of their own village councils. In each group, one Human Services Aide was married to a village medical aide.

The manner in which the several Aides carried out their responsibilities as Human Services Aides--the tasks they undertook with individual family members, the community activities with which they were involved, their perceptions of their roles, and even the timing and number of hours

they were absent from their Human Services Aide positions all carried the imprimatur of the villages in which they were born and/or were working.

Human Services Aides also have held other responsible leadership positions in their villages either in the past or in the present. Two had been magistrates, one part-time and the other full-time. One, the Aide in Bethel, was active on a number of community committees including membership on the Bethel School Board.

In other ways, too, the Human Services Aides as a group contained characteristics that were representative not only of the RASS villages but of the native population as a whole. For example, nine of the sixteen male Aides either had served in the Army of the United States or were active in the National Guard - an activity which required absence from village work from time to time for participation in National Guard duty. Two of the Aides were hard-of-hearing; three were acknowledged "hard drinkers," two of these spending some time in jail during the course of the demonstration. The impact of these and other problems upon the performance of natives as Human Services Aides in the course of this demonstration will be considered in subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER

II

THE EVALUATIVE RESEARCH: DESIGN AND PROCESS

> How will you know that what people tell you in interviews is not because of what we do? Because they are jealous of my job because it earn more money....Sometimes they want this job. There are only couple jobs in the village for all the time!

This comment in a letter from a Human Services Aide to the principal investigator was one the members of the research team were to encounter frequently in the course of the evaluative research. Sometimes the anxiety was expressed openly, as above. Sometimes it was masked by other, seemingly unrelated, questions. Occasionally, it was voiced in individual interviews, usually to the accompaniment of an uneasy chuckle; now and then it was brought up in meetings that included several Aides, or in memoranda or letters. Each response, whether verbal or written, sought to reiterate assurance that the questioner's adequacy as an individual or as an individual HSA was not the focus of the evaluative research, that measures would be taken to recognize the existence and form of personal bias and to appropriately neutralize its impact on the research process and outcomes, that the researchers would consider such biases in the context of factors that might serve to impede or facilitate the achievement of the goals of the demonstration, and that the goals and processes of the evaluation centered around the effects and effectiveness of the RASS demonstration in attaining its several objectives.

1

Aims and Dimensions of the RASS Project Evaluation

For it was to the matter of achievement of the demonstration objectives

of the RASS Project that the research components were to be addressed: the recruitment, training, and supervision of the Human Services Aides; the HSAs' pursuit of tasks related to meeting social and economic need of individuals and families, and of Native communities; the coordinating activities of RASS; and the spectrum of administrative and organizational supports available to the primary HSA undertakings in individual, family, and community service and development. Accordingly, based on the funded project proposal's objectives, five areas were identified for evaluation: (1) Direct Service Activities; (2) Community Development Activities; (3) Supervisory and Administrative Supports; (4) Recruitment, Training, and Supervision of Aides; and (5) Agency Coordination (both inter- and intra-agency).[1]

Early exploration by the evaluation research team, including field work to gain first-hand understanding of the milieu and circumstances that might affect the RASS demonstration and its evaluation, supported the idea that traditional evaluative methods or criteria for assessment of effects and effectiveness could not be usefully applied to a demonstration in rural Alaska. There is little guiding knowledge based on research about the life styles of various peoples and villages comprising the RASS population; and the vast geographic area of the project made field contacts and direct field supervision virtually impossible. Yet the identification and classification of needs and problems and relevant services or social interventions had to be geared to the customs, circumstances, and capacities evidently characteristics of the region. Moreover, every data-collecting instrument had to be adapted to the capacities and responses of agency and project staff

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[1]These are presented as separate chapters in the full report of the evaluative research, but combined into three in this version of the report.

members, the HSAs, and the persons served.[1]

Several research procedures were instituted to evaluate the five separate but interlinking aspects identified for evaluation within the whole demonstration. Some of these instruments and processes were designed to yield data for more than one aspect. These included simple reporting forms for the Aides' case service actions and community activities and for the supervisors' activities. The Aides made baseline surveys of 22 of the 50 villages to gather historical and other material not elsewhere recorded; they developed rosters of resources for 44 villages. In the absence of local data on the community, each Aide was given photographic equipment to record on film their villages and village life. The researchers conducted three series of structured interviews with the Aides; a Native social worker interviewed a sample of 105 villagers aided by HSAs; villagers interviewed a sample of other villagers; the researchers reviewed a sample of case records as well as 51 brief process recordings the HSAs made for the research team; all correspondence within, from, or to the agency about RASS activities was reviewed; formal and informal interviews were conducted with the staffs of RASS and the Division of Public Welfare, and with persons outside the agency who touched the project in some way.

2

The Conceptual Framework

Using certain inferences drawn from the preliminary explorations and examinations of early research reports and other documents, a conceptual

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[1]Illustrative is the Case Service Action Report. Agency personnel and others initially cautioned against the use of any but the simplest language. To gain information about referrals and resources, one question, therefore, asked: "What did you ask somebody else to do? Whom did you ask?" The response often was "I do my own work!" Rephrasing to ask "Did you refer this family to someone? To whom? For what?" elicited the kind of information sought.

framework was developed for the assessment of the RASS data and a classification of social needs and services was developed. Within the context of the purpose of the evaluative research--to determine whether the several objectives of the RASS project had been achieved and what elements appeared to have helped or impeded achievement--these are some of the points taken into account.

:: In the RASS area there are different levels of need and want, to which the "survival" level is basic, revolving as it does around the fundamental, primitive task of sustaining life by access to food, shelter, and protective clothing.

:: Until there is some respite from the struggle for survival, a person can usually divert little or no physical or emotional energy into correcting, alleviating, or preventing needs or problems--let alone achieving self-realization.

:: The problem of helping mobilize Native resources and energy beyond the first level is compounded because the struggle for survival is pervasive among them throughout the year.

:: Many ways exist for meeting social need; no single method is best for meeting all kinds of problems or even some problems in various cultural or community settings.

:: How individuals or families succeed in coping with their survival needs will determine their readiness and capacity to attack their own and/or village social problems.

:: The best persons to solve problems in remote and isolated communities might be those with interest and common sense capacities for innovation and accommodation to adverse conditions without benefit of supervision by or consultation with others.

:: There are variations among HSAs and villages and within villages.

:: The assessment of how social need is met, whether by families or villages, should be sensitive to the reciprocal relationships of the people and their physical environment, a relationship from which their life styles have evolved over centuries and through which certain kinds of strengths have endured.

:: The focus of the evaluation research should be not on pathology but, rather, on the strengths with which solutions to problems can be cemented.

Special Operational Considerations

Recognition had to be accorded the fact that the research instruments

and interviews would not provide a comprehensive picture of all the activities carried on by the Human Services Aides. Consideration would have to be given to such factors as these: Some Aides submitted few, some many research reports about their individual case actions or community development activities. Were the reasons related to limits in use of written and/or oral English? degree of comfort stemming from the level of the Aide's educational achievement? perceptions or levels of comprehension of the possible scope and function of the assignment? the Aide's perceptions of privacy or confidentiality about personal affairs of villagers? culturally-determined behavior? attitudes toward the authority or ethnicity of RASS supervisory/administrative/research personnel (gussaks)? available quality and quantity of supervision?

Some Aides were protective of the image of adequacy presented to others about themselves, but more importantly, about their people.[1] Some Aides were the targets of deliberately formulated rumor or gossip circulated to produce a particular effect. "I want to get him out; I can do the job better." How, then, to cull fact from fancy when the effectiveness of role-performance was involved?

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[1]Occasionally an Aide would flatly deny the presence of problems in his village with the written "No problems," then proceed to describe troubling behavior. Certain HSAs verbalized this protective stance, as indicated in this excerpt from a letter sent by an Aide following a newspaper article that referred to poverty and alcoholism, naming his village.

"I believe people here are well respected, and well known by the surrounding villages except by White men. Why should, rather how could an average American know so much about Natives by staying in the village overnight?... How can a White man say he knows how the Natives live without being a Native himself in the first place?...I believe that's plain stupidity...Hope you don't think I'm insulting you. This is just an explanation of how I feel toward the benefit of my people here in [village]."

Toward a Classification System

The service classification system used in the analysis of the RASS data comprises the following three categories:

1. Single Objective Service: to meet a specific, current concrete need or problem (to provide a needy family with income, complete a required social study, make a referral to a medical aide--prescribed or partially prescribed fairly routine case actions; to arrange for a supply of winter fuel for the village);

2. Episode of Service: a cluster of related short term services directed toward a particular purpose, a recognized ending (supportive help over a short period of time until family members can be reunited with an injured hospitalized member; active involvement in the formation of a single purpose in the village);

3. Sequential Treatment: a longitudinal treatment service, a change model toward a specific longer term goal (a vocational rehabilitation plan or a program of services to bring about social or economic change with respect to an individual or family; stimulating community interest in procuring adult education program to raise the literacy level and teach some marketable skills that will enable the village to undertake some manufacture that will provide jobs and earnings).

Provision was made for the possibility of including several levels within these three categories--or that some services would not lend themselves to classification other than as "exceptions."

The needs/problems classification was developed to include ten general areas discernible in the research reports:

1. Lack of income
2. Accidents and life or health hazards
3. Request for adoption
4. Oil, fuel, wood for long winter cold
5. Lack of adequate housing
6. Educational obstacles
7. Lack of employment opportunities and job development
8. Problem of being aged
9. Alcoholism
10. Obstacles to functioning.

Some Major Research Questions

From the aggregate of data collected and the analysis of these it was expected that answers would emerge to questions germane to the evaluation of the RASS demonstration's effects and effectiveness in achieving its goals. A dozen questions--mostly pairs--were formulated as follows:

1. What is the nature of the environment of the RASS villages: its physical and social aspects, the demands and supports that characterize each?

2. What problems, needs, wants confront the village families and individual residents?

3. What collective problems, needs, wants, confront the villages as entities?

4. What coping patterns characterize the villagers as they attempt to deal with problems, needs, wants?

5. What coping patterns characterize the people as they attempt to deal with collective village problems, needs, wants?

6. What are the results of these coping efforts of individuals or families? of village segments or the entire village?

7. What are the roles, actual and potential, of the Human Services Aides in these efforts?

8. What are the implications of these roles--in service and/or community development--for recruitment and qualifications of HSAs?

9. What are the implications of these roles, and recruitment to them, for training of HSAs--at entrance into the position and on a continuing basis thereafter?

10. What are the implications for the kinds of supervisory supports HSAs in these roles require? administrative supports?

11. What resources need to be developed to effectively assist the coping efforts? by the Aide? by others in DPW?

12. What existing resources need to be coordinated to assure effective service to the target villages and/or villages? by the Aide? by higher levels of authority in DPW? by persons or agencies external to DPW?

The Evaluation Report

Some of the unique aspects of the RASS demonstration that have necessitated a particularly flexible approach to its evaluation are intimately associated with the geographic, ethnic, and cultural setting in which the demonstration was placed. Because of the reciprocal relationships of the Aides with their respective milieu, the nature of the data gathered in the evaluation process and the significance of the findings were examined in the context of the setting in which the Aides fulfill their roles.

The report which follows is confined to selected highlights condensed from the data and findings relative to the five areas examined. In addition, it contains the findings and their implications as well as the recommendations formulated from them much as they appear in the full report.[1]

Quotations from HSAs' written or oral comments are interspersed throughout the report. The quotations are presented without any editing. The kinds of phrasing and the variations in style employed offer a picture of differences in language use and proficiency that nevertheless graphically convey the Aide's point. The use of illustrative quotations is intended to preserve in this document some of the rich flavor of the Rural Areas Social Services demonstration.

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[1]Frances Feldman, Organization and Delivery of Human Services in Rural Alaska: Evaluation of the Rural Areas Social Services Project, Regional Research Institute in Social Welfare, School of Social Work, University of Southern California. (Los Angeles: 1971) Some highlights of the direct service actions evaluation will appear in "Reaching Rural Alaskan Natives Through Human Services Aides," scheduled for September-October, 1971, Welfare in Review.

CHAPTER

III

CASE SERVICE ACTIONS AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

> Friday night Mr. and Mrs. [A], drunk and leave their kids in their home and went to [neighboring village]. So somebody in the village asked me to check them kids. So I went over to their house and saw two kids crying, little baby on the floor and the house was really warm. So I look around to some one who can take care of these kids. I didn't find anybody...so I take care of them.
>
> So next morning I talk to their mother, last night you leave your kids and this is not the first time. So I give you last chance if I see the kids again like this I will take action. So if you want your children don't drink again like this.
>
> From Human Services Aide Case Service Action Report

What service activities were undertaken by Human Services Aides during the demonstration project on Rural Areas Social Services? to meet what individual or village social needs or wants? to intervene with regard to what family or community problems? Did these services further the expressed objectives of the RASS demonstration? fall short of expectations? exceed them? What factors negatively or positively affected the demonstration's course toward attainment of its goals?

This Chapter will consider some of the data and results of the data analysis pertinent to the aid and services as well as the community development goals of RASS, the concomitant expectations as to the tasks of the HSAs, and their progress towards meeting these expectations and fulfilling the project's goals.

The Goals and Expectations

Aid and Services Goals

The RASS proposal specified that the "sub-professional social service assistants (HSAs) indigenous to the rural areas to be serviced" would (1) determine eligibility for money payments (utilizing a self-declaration form); (2) provide "extensive social and other services" to help clients to obtain or retain capacity for self-care and/or self-support and to strengthen and maintain family life. With regard to the first, it was expected that the Human Services Aides would identify and study the potentials for the reduction or elimination of dependency among new applicants at the earliest possible opportunity. With regard to the second, they would identify and study the potentials for improved family and individual functioning, and extend short-term and referral service to bring to bear "the full resources of the agency and the community." In essence, all mandatory services enumerated under Title IV of the Social Security Act were to be implemented to the extent possible by the HSAs. The social services were perceived as including protective services to aged and disabled applicants and recipients, and activities which "supplement or substitute for parental care for the purpose of preventing, remedying or assisting in the solution of problems which may result in the neglect, abuse, exploitation or delinquency of the children." Services would be provided irrespective of the economic need of the individual or family.

Several areas were explicitly designated for service attention. The entire caseload would be screened to identify persons referrable for employment as well as problem areas so that the caseload might be organized "on a priority basis in terms of treatment needs." Second, family planning

services would be offered in the form of educational services to prevent birth out of wedlock, and medical contraceptive services would be made available to those desiring such services. The latter would be given in cooperation with and referral to the United States Public Health Service, Alaska Native Health Division.

Third, under the rubric of "home management services," services would be directed at assisting with attaining proper education, improving living conditions, providing homemaker services, organizing day-care facilities if possible, and assisting with child rearing or money management. And fourth, a range of child care services would be given, including increasing adoptive services, developing foster homes, providing protective services through referrals to appropriate other agencies and prevention of child abuse and neglect.

Community Development Goals

Attention, however, was not to be focused solely on the economic and social welfare needs of individuals. The project was to train the Human Services Aides also for an active role in the "development of their communities well within keeping of the social services responsibility of the agency." The proposal specified that:

> The need for welfare services in the rural areas is mainly due to the fact that these areas are outside the mainstream, not competing with economic life of the nation. Together with increased welfare services, an attempt to battle this economic isolation is of paramount importance.

It envisioned the community development role as encompassing:

> Development of community resources; assessment of resources; referral to appropriate agencies; education toward resource development; assistance with consumer self-support needs; establishment of a potential for development; stimulation of self-help efforts; promotion of the concept of development on community wide basis.

By implication, the HSA's would use their judgment and ingenuity in carrying out these tasks. The training program was expected to provide some knowledge and skill in community development; the supervision to be supplied by the two project coordinators likewise would be of assistance to the Aides in carrying out this charge.

The general nature of the expectations regarding the community development of the Aides, and the diverse connotations of the term in the fields of social work, economics, education, and other suggested that a working definition should be delineated to serve as a baseline from which to approach the examination of the nature of the community tasks and services undertaken by the Aides, their outcomes and implications. Accordingly, the following statement was developed and used.

Community development is problem-solving aiming to reduce or control community social problems through (a) social engineering or planning, (b) establishing of new ways or services to meet community needs/problems, (c) coordinating of services or special activities in the community, (d) or altering existing services--reducing or expanding--to more effectively meet needs of the community. In the remote villages that are the ASS target, such problem-solving activity might be initiated by the Aide with or in behalf of others in the village; the Aide's direct or indirect involvement may be responsive to activity initiated by some other person or organization, with the Aide assuming responsibility for direction of the activity or as a participant in the endeavor.

HSA Assignments and Preparation

The HSA's home village was his duty station: his "office" was located there--in his home, a community hall, or wherever arrangements could be made.

The duty station was not necessarily the most populous village or centrally located among a group of villages; the fact that it was the Aide's home village was the governing factor. With the exception of the Aide in Bethel and the one in Kwethluk,[1] each had responsibility for two or more villages, Travel to other villages was in accordance with apparent need, requests from the Bethel District Office or other units of the Division of Public Welfare, or the Aide's own judgment. Weather also was a determinant as to whether a non-duty station village was accessible.

The two formal training phases of the three-part training program for the HSAs—the first three months in Bethel, and the last two in Anchorage--constituted the major preparation of and for the Aides to carry out their expected tasks. The curriculum in the first phase followed traditional welfare training content, with emphasis on the public welfare organization and its programs, procedures, and eligibility; programs of cooperating agencies also were considered. The Anchorage training focus was on reinforcing the earlier learnings, adding to the Aides' understanding of behavior, acquainting them with measures for meeting social need--such as child placement or adoptions, and introducing them to the use of treatment resources. It was planned that in the interval between the two academic training periods

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[1]The Bethel caseload was relatively large. Kwethluk is reasonably close to Bethel (and viewed by some as the "most advanced of the villages and economically best off because of its location near Bethel") and the Kwethluk Aide was expected to spend some of his time in the larger community. As time passed, it became clear that this arrangement denied appropriate attention to the needs of Kwethluk and the Aide was restored to full time duty in this village.

One other change occurred in caseload distribution: in Fall, 1970, Shageluk, equally accessible to Grayling and Holy Cross, was reassigned to the Grayling Aide because of demands on the time of the Holy Cross Aide.

and the months following the Anchorage phase, close supervision would be supplied by the two project coordinators and staff development would be continuous, with the help of the RASS training supervisor in Bethel.

2

Social Needs, Problems, and Service Actions

The social needs and problems to which the Aides addressed themselves, and the nature and scope of the service actions in which they engaged were discernable in data obtained from various sources. Primary were the 859 cases service action reports prepared by the 19 Aides, the 51 process recordings they made, three rounds of interviews held with them, memoranda and other correspondence pertaining to individual or family problems. Supplementary data derived from interviews with other project and Division of Public Welfare personnel, interviews with a sample of 105 clients and with other villagers, and examination of a sample of case records and other pertinent reports.

The services given by the HSAs had to relate to a need, a want, or a problem. The range and nature of the needs, wants, or problems encountered by the HSAs--regardless of how they came to the Aides' attention--required some categorization preliminary to analysis of the service actions they undertook. Several general points with reference to these problems emerged sharply early in the demonstration and served as a backdrop to the process of analysis. For one thing, what might be perceived by the Caucasian majority as a problem may not be so viewed by an ethnic or cultural minority which has made accomodations over centuries to isolation and the continual struggle for survival in a harsh unremitting environment. The struggle for survival

was paramount and pervasive, in some localities and in some families within a community absorbing all family effort and energy, and in some villages and among some families being less critical but nevertheless primary. Behavior was directed either toward coping with actual survival needs or seemingly was reactive to this struggle.

For another, what was done by the HSAs, and how it was done could only be examined in relation to the scope and form of the needs or problems of the individual or family, how--and by whom--these were articulated, and what internal and external coping resources the clients could muster.

Accordingly, wants, needs, and problems of individuals or families were examined in relation to what precipitated the HSA contacts with clients, what the HSAs perceived as problems, and the classification and analysis of the reported problems.

Origin of Contact

Contacts were initiated at the behest of DPW, by the Human Services Aide, by a client, by an interested villager or village organization, or by the representative of another agency.

DPW Requests

The District or headquarters-initiated request for a reinvestigation was frequently the point of the HSA's entry into contact with a client. Thus, HSA 5 reported about the K family that:

> Their investigation was overdue, had orders from Anchorage Office to review this case. The problem was, HSA had no knowledge this family was on assistance...They were counselled how kids are important, in taking care of them, their health; how money is being spent on them. This family is taking real good care of their grandchildren. They are assured their aid will continue as long as the kids are taken care of by them. There is a chance the father might remarry. This will change the situation. Will observe on this in the future.

Two months later Mr. K approached the Aide for clarification of the grant, then asked for help with regard to differentiation of the parental and grandparental role with respect to the two grandchildren in the home. The Aide's manifest interest in the family in the course of the routine redetermination of eligibility had permitted Mr. K to seek the Aide's help with a troubling problem affecting the welfare of the grandchildren.

HSA-Initiated Contacts

A substantial porportion of the contacts were initiated by the HSAs. HSA 11, for example, knew that Mr. T:

> got run over by other boat. He is alive but cannot work. Also [Mrs. T] had a cancer on her breast from long time. I find out if she can be on AFDC grant.

HSA 11 therefore called on the family, filled in the forms to "refer them to District office for AFDC for the children."

Similarly, HSA 12 had heard from "someone" in his village about the hospitalization of a father in another village served by this Aide. "...So while I am there I visit her [wife]." The HSA took an application for AFDC from this illiterate woman, initiated a request to the hospital for medical information as basis for an AD application ("I am very worried about his family," HSA 12 wrote in his letter), and asked the village council to process a request to BIA for general assistance.

Client Requests

In many instances the client sought out the HSA. Mrs. P "came to me and told me, she had just turned 65. According to Law, she in now eligible for OAA." Theresa K

> ...came [to another Aide] to explain her problem. She had a baby out of wedlock, she want me to fill out her declaration form. Her eligibility was

> explained. Previous I had no knowledge of her problem. Finally she couldn't bear it. She had to come to me on my field trip [to a non-duty station village].

There were many requests for assistance to complete forms or translate letters or other materials. Mr. A, for example,

> ...came to me first for Help. Because he doesn't understand in English or write. He came to me to show him of grocery list names what he wants to order. I just show him of names in native...and interupted the names of list of grocery [into Eskimo dialect].

HSA 18 described the family of this client, who manages a store of his own, "well cared for." He was sending an order to Seattle for groceries to be brought by ship after Spring breakup--a more economical means for purchasing long-term supplies than patronizing the village or Bethel stores, but a means requiring availability of resources for putting through the transaction.

Fairly common were requests for assistance with filling in forms for unemployment insurance or requests for BIA general relief. The fact that the Alaska definition of need for AFDC excludes unemployed fathers means, of course, that such fathers who are needy Natives would have to turn to BIA for economic assistance if they had exhausted Unemployment Benefits or were not eligible for these. In some places, application for such general assistance could be made directly to a BIA representative in the community; in other villages, however, the request either had to be forwarded by mail to the BIA representative, or, if the village council held a contract with BIA to administer this aid, the request would be directed to this village body.

But clients brought requests of other kinds to some Aides. Mrs. B, for instance, called on the Aide

> ...To talk of her problem. She is acussing her husband involved in another woman, but I found out this was due to jealousy. I advise them to have a cooling period instead of fighting it out, since they have 5 kids. This problem will create conflict not only themselves, this will also apply to their kids....I have been approached by both man and wife, heard both sides of their story....

Occasionally it was not clear whether the client approached the HSA in his capacity as an employee of the Division of Public Welfare or as president or a member of the village council. Sometimes, however, the Aide clearly distinguished between these two roles and to which the client request was addressed. HSA 5's process recording on one situation illustrates this.

> Mrs.-- came to my office one brisk cold morning, the weather was cold and windy, I could see on her face she had a real cold night in her rammed earth house. She has a bundle of worries to tell me, first she is out of wood in her remote dwelling, that was donated by the city council, she told me how she had tried other means to get wood, but no success....
>
> Her second was her rammed earth house, she told me it won't stand very long, there are great big cracks on one wall, and she is afraid something might happen, or it could happen during the night.
>
> the frusterated look on her face shows there's a problem there, besides...she has been in cold atmosphere for many hours...This is not her only one she has 4 kids range from 5 to 13...That cold morning I believe her I was cold myself...
>
> Now to cope these problems step by step....the council can appoint somebody to buy her wood, since they have special money for emergencies, such as hers...I can talk with them...so arrangements made that same hour to purchase her a sled of wood or more if needed in neer future. [This in Aide's capacity as village president; he also then went to the home.]
>
> ...she was informed there's a housing program coming this summer if congress appropriates the mony there's a chance they might be on top priority list, there was a slight smile on her face, and the house seems a little warmer after all.

Other Sources

Teachers often were a source of referral in some villages. HSA 14

> ...Went into a home of [the O's] and told that the teacher has reported that their children has been tardy in class everyday, and that it was brought to my attention that I should find out why the children are always late....[Mr O] sort of got irritated and says that since he has no education, he doesn't care if his children gets it.

In Bethel particularly, the Aide received a considerable number of requests from teachers or other school personnel around the absences of Native children.

Not uncommonly, but in some villages often and in some villages not at all, the source of referral to the Aide was the village council. Sometimes these were requests for economic assistance; sometimes they were for other forms of help. HSA 8's village president, for example,

> ...Said that they needed help from GR and also Mrs. M came to me for some assistance....I helped them fill in GR forms because their is a need of food and clothing presently. Household of dozen. Mr. M is unable to receive unemployment insurance, he had tried.

In HSA 15's village, a member of the village council referred the L's to the Aide: "They are taking care of their four grandchildren who have parents and claim that father does not support them." The following month the children's mother called on the HSA, referred by her parents, for counseling regarding her marital situation.

Occasionally a medical aide brought to the HSA's attention the illness and, therefore, the unemployability or lack of resources of a villager. Some referrals originated with the State Trooper in Bethel or a village policeman in the few villages with such officials. Sometimes the magistrate asked the Aide to contact the family.

It was not unusual for a relative of the HSA to refer another relative for aid or service. Not readily apparent in such instances, however, was whether the Aide, knowing the client's situation but sensitive to his role as an agency representative, would have initiated the contact himself. That this was an area that a number of the Aides found troubling was brought out repeatedly in formal and informal interviews during the entire period of the demonstration.

Classification of Needs, Wants, and Problems

Table 2 shows the number of contacts with public assistance recipients and nonrecipients reported by the Aides. From examination of these reports as well as data from other sources, a classification

Table 2

Case Service Action Reports[a] (R-1) Showing Number of Clients Receiving or Not Receiving Money Aid
N = 859

Aid	No. Reports on Clients	Percent of N
Continuing Aid	513	59.72
Applicant or New Recipient	119	13.85
No Money Aid	220	25.16
Unable to Determine	7	.82

[a]Several reports pertained to single clients with whom there were multiple contacts.

of needs and problems was developed to identify and categorize the obstacles which interfere with an individual's or family's right to, or opportunity for, development, independence--or for some, the realization of potential for leadership. Six categories were formulated; several others need/problem categories were subsumed under these.

Of the reports, 327 clearly indicated a need or problem; the balance did not identify need or problems beyond a statement like "made reinvestigation" or "took social history." It can be assumed that all of these had economic need which determined their continued eligibility for public assistance, but the problems leading to or arising from this economic factor were not indicated. Table 3 shows the categories of need/problem, classified by the primary problem presented.

Income-Related Needs/Problems. Lack of income from work or other sources is an increasingly serious problem in an area that is still in transition from a subsistence to a money economy. From the Aides' reports and interviews could be inferred a strong work orientation, with strenuous "all-out" seasonal work the way of life, as well as cultural values that equate adequacy and worthiness of respect (self-esteem as well as esteem from others) with "work," "paid employment," "self-support."

Yet a village might have only one or two paid jobs which might or might not be year-round--or no paid employment opportunities at all. Able-bodied family men in off season have no recourse to financial assistance except general relief that may be available from BIA. Women, however, may have the alternative of AFDC. Thus, Mrs. T. talked with HSA 03 about her financial needs and the possibility of AFDC. When the HSA explained the probability that she met eligibility rules for AFDC, this divorcee "did not want to apply for AFDC, but she wants to apply next summer since she works as a cook for BIA school in winter."

A thread running through the data was the problem of being aged. This description frequently overlapped with health hazards, lack of fuel for the winter freeze months, or other handicaps which interfere with life functioning in a hazardous environment. Because the Aides' training had emphasized

Table 3

Classification of Needs/Problems Reported as Case Service Action Reports (R-1)
N = 327

Needs/Problems Category	Number of Reports	Percent of N
Unemployment, or Underemployment	56	17.1
Health, Accident Hazards Requiring Treatment:	97	29.7
Physical Illness	42	12.9
Accidental Injury	14	4.3
Drinking	32	9.8
Other	9	2.7
Children:	88	26.9
Abused, Neglected	17	5.2
Removal from Home	3	.9
Adoptions/Guardianship	55	16.8
Return to Home	6	1.8
Other	7	2.2
Housing:	32	9.8
None Available	4	1.2
Inadequate	25	7.7
Other	3	.9
Income-related:	32	9.8
Unemployability	13	4.
Mismanagement of Money	13	4.
Other	6	1.8
Educational Obstacles:	22	6.7
No School Resources for Children	11	3.3
No Job Training Resources	11	3.3
Totals	327	100[a]

[a]Percentage rounded off.

identification of personal problems, the repetitive response of "no problem" except that he or she is suffering from aging problems was frequently noted. Often connected with this "problem" or "no problem," however, were explanatory comments about loss of work income or difficulty in obtaining work because of age. Hence, reports ranged from "he stated he and his wife are getting old and needs help," to " Mr. J is over 65 years of age. He is upset because he has been turn down by cannery employers due to his old age, leaving him in tight spot financial-wise," to "He learned that trying to get job when available is okey and was very happy about it, I help him complete declaration of need."

Old folks, no longer able to meet the harsh demands of subsistence self-sufficiency, may receive Social Security Benefits or Old Age Assistance--but of course not until the age of eligibility for either has been attained. At what age and with what physical disabilities can the person not yet 62 or 65 years old be deemed unemployable; indeed, sufficiently disabled to be eligible for Aid to the Disabled? For the younger adult, what is the line of demarcation for public assistance eligibility between the employable father--highly motivated and physically able to work but for whom neither the economy nor the season holds work opportunities—and the father whose precarious health precludes his carrying on of "normal" work activities throughout the year?

Discernible in the written and verbal reports of the HSAs is the strong pull of the Native's sense of adequacy and independence to maintain himself and his dependents through his own efforts, and some poignancy when his circumstances reduce the possibilities of doing so. And discernible also is how thin the line is between "employability" and "unemployability."

Unemployability because of physical disability is an important reason for loss of wage income. Unavailability for work is a less frequent but nonetheless not uncommon factor that in effect spells unemployability. The former is evident in the accidents and serious illness of the family breadwinner, often the consequences of the strenuous and hazardous nature of wresting a subsistence livelihood. The data make no reference to the courage required or the dangers faced in the work activities undertaken: fishing, hunting, firefighting, etc. It is just expected, and therefore serious and incapacitating injuries that arise in the pursuit of work tasks and that interfere with continued family economic sufficiency and independence are taken as a matter of course.

HSA 12, for example, explains that Mr. U

> ...will be unable to go to cannery work this summer because he is having medical problems [his "back broken" in a hunting accident]. He asked me to help him if I can. And he stated that he didn't even do any subsistence hunting during the spring seal hunting season.

AFDC recipient Mr. L, on the other hand, is reported by HSA 05 to be "working for short period, this has to be reported. They want me to do this same time this has been done in the past." HSA 05 was told by the employer that Mr. L "wouldn't work for more than one month depending on the run of the fish." Mr. L, with one lung removed, does not perceive of himself as unemployable. Fairly productive as the head of his family for one or two summer months, Mr. L's ability to provide support in the harsh winter months drops to absolutely nothing: the combination of weather and his physical condition render him unemployable.

The matter of unavailability for employment (a problem exacerbated when employment is unavailable) contains certain elements that in several respects

are peculiar to the Alaskan rural subsistence way of life. The process recording by HSA 19 regarding a widower with four children is revealing. He visited them in "their 11 x 12 log house" because "I understand he had hard time to meet all his needs." The family lives in a remote community that now has fewer than 25 members. They are proud of their strong ties to their ethnic and linguistic past; for them, relocating to a larger or different community is not to be considered. HSA 19 asked Mr. M why

> wasn't he working. He said he cant leave the children to try to find a job. Besides that the childrens got to go to school. And be told what to do. He said the childrens need him any way for protections. So I tell him I would do best I can to help him. We sit down and talk. Ive asked him if he had hard time to feed or cloth his childrens. He said he really have hard time. Some time he cant catch any fur to buy any groceries. Ive also asked him if he could get any crdit from any trading posts. Only from _____. Not so much either cause he never know when he will pay up. He said some time person gets bad luck to get some fur. Ive asked him if he ever get GR from BIA. The answer was no. Then he asked me where he could get grocerys and where as the cheapest.

Inaccessibility of employment as well as sheer lack of employment opportunities in most of the villages constitutes a major hurdle toward achieving any individual goal of complete economic independence and self-support. Irrespective of the reality of the accessibility as well as availability of work or training for work, some Aides dutifully "screened" the "entire caseload to identify referrable persons for employment." In this vein, one Aide serving a remote village with 113 inhabitants, among whom were six AFDC families and one recipient of OAA, reported: "Ive asked Mary [a deserted AFDC mother] if she would like to work or Be trained. But she said she wasn't interested. I do this So as to support her self." Except for the teacher and the part time operator of the tiny village store, there are at present no work opportunities or prospects other than a small summer

work project that employs several men only. To be "interested" would imply readiness to leave the home village for a larger community where job training and child care resources might be available.

Undaunted by the paucity of local paid work opportunities and the client's response to his query, on two successive visits he also suggested work and stressed that Mary should help her parents with their tasks. "Mary wasn't doing anything at my visit. Ive asked Mary's parents to let Mary help get their groceries and help clean the house. Thier isnt much else we can do to Mary. She just depent on her Warrant."

The same Aide regarded differently the work behavior and attitude of a young AFDC mother in another smaller village, seemingly without potential for developing any economic base other than subsistence living. He remarked: "...Cause Eva has three unwed childrens who needed help so I decided to help them....This family is in need of welfare grand. There is no other way to earn any money in _____." His process recording explained that Eva and her children live with her parents in a one room house with five beds.

> The house sure is very crowded. One old long cook stove to cook and heat the house. Two tables one is full of dishes and one is clean that they use for eating. Their is 15 people in the house. All seems to wear fairly clean clothings. Gas laterns for lights. gets their water from the river. No fresh meat nor fresh fish, they have some dried meat.... They will fish salmon when the salmon comes. They will dry some for their own use and for dogs in winter. They keep these dogs to get some wood and other use. Thats their only transportation in winter....But they live on the country pretty much. They are used to that kind of living. That's their home and they don't want to move.

In contrast to his attitude about Mary who "wasn't doing anything" and was presumed by the Aide to be non-industrious, the Aide's positive feeling was evident for Eva and her family who worked and maintained their independence through subsistence to the degree possible. In this instance

he accepted the inaccessibility of employment opportunities without raising the question with Eva. The HSA's strong approval for the "work" even when it was not on a job, and his disapproval of total reliance on public assistance even in the absence of work prospects, was reflective of a pattern discernible in the reports and interview responses of a majority of the HSAs.

Mismanagement of money, in all but one report of such behavior, was connected with drinking. HSA 08, for example, was told by "one member of the village police" that Mrs. J had been drinking, "probably using her welfare money." The village police gave her "one more chance to quit drinking or will discontinue welfare. I said instead of discontinuing her check we may select a proxy....Mrs. J does not drink often, but occasionally. I talked about it [and also about budgeting] and she says she will quit."

Health and Accident Hazards. Physical illness and accidental injury not only appeared to be important reasons for the economic need of families receiving some form of public assistance; they also constituted more than seventeen percent of the problems classified in connection with the HSA's service actions. Tuberculosis of a family member at home or in an Anchorage hospital was designated or inferred ["all-night coughing" which led the Aide to say of a villager that he was "very sick" and should go to the hospital, and to report the villager's death within two months] as the reason for the family's application for a categorical aid or referral to BIA for general relief. Delayed medical attention in childbirth and early aging from hazardous exposure were reported. Individuals were unable to pursue--temporarily or permanently--normal subsistence activities because of accidents: gunshot wounds and other injuries incurred while hunting or fishing, boat accidents, falls in inclement weather or while building or

repairing housing, snowmobile accidents.

As an obstacle to family and self development as well as self support, alcoholism loomed as a problem of sizeable dimensions. Great tolerance was displayed toward excessive drinking as such; heavy drinking was viewed with alarm only when it led to abuse or neglect of children, wife-beating, mismanagement of income (that is, diverting money from basic needs to purchase of liquor), neglect of housekeeping, or other forms of violence or neglect of duty to others. Although case service action reports were coded for "drinking" when the HSA's approach was focused on the drinking per se, the problems resulting from or associated with the alcoholism were coded: as mismanagement of money, as neglect or abuse of children, as removal of children from the home.

Children. The range of conditions affecting children, and to which the Aides addressed themselves, was very broad. Clearly evident was the general feeling of Aide and villagers about the worth and importance of children, the familial (not just parental) responsibility to provide for them and to protect them, and the monitoring obligations of others when parents failed to fulfill their appropriate parental role. By far the largest category of needs/problems pertaining to children consisted of adoption situations. Sometimes the objective in the legalization of the adoption arrangement was eligibility for AFDC, but more often the reason was the desire of the economically independent family to legally resolve the problem of the child's status.

There was an unmistakable connection between the problems categories of abused and neglected children and movement of children in or out of the family home. Only twice was delinquency of children cited as a reason for removal of the children--and in one of these, the delinquency (stealing and unsupervised behavior) was related to the divorced mother's drinking and

general behavior. In only one instance was the child "abuse" not attributed to drinking but to parental reaction to the child's behavior. Mr. P was called to HSA's attention "by the teacher for beating up his oldest girl." When asked about this, the Aide reported, the father replied that:

> The oldest girl was bothering all the younger children and woke up in a rage rattling up and kicking whatever she sees in the house.... Still sort of irritated, [Mr. P] says that he has a right to do whatever he wants with his children, and I told him that he should at least scold with his mouth not with a stick.

With regard to the several classifications of child-focused problems, one might wonder whether a special classification should have been developed for coding as a problem the removal of children from home because of BIA personnel's perceptions of the effects of parental drinking on child care. Repeatedly, the data from several villages dealt with attitudes and actions of BIA staff in such removals. A graphic and not unusual example that poses the question of "whose problem is it?" is extracted from a process recording submitted by HSA 15. Accompanied by his supervisor, he visited the K family, whose three children had been removed "somewhat precipitously" several weeks before.

> I could smell the cleanliness in the atmosphere and the house looked that way. I never seen it cleaner than that before. [The K's]... welcomed us with wondering faces. They stood there for a moment not saying anything, but seem to know what we were there fore. Both looking, as usual, on the faces which is kind of empty since their kids left, never smiling.
>
> ...Their first question was, why their kids were taken away from them... [When the order was enforced they had been told] because they were constant, almost every day drinkers, not caring for their kids as they should, abusing them and not keeping the house suitable for them.
>
> Their answer was, that they were surprised because they did not drink every day, just occasionally, and that they take care of their kids the best way they know how and can. They also stated that they had quit their occasional drinking since [the DPW Child Welfare Worker] warned them of what could happen to their kids if they do not quit, Sept. 1969....They stated they have not drinking since, also if the

kids return, they will continue as they are at the present, no more drinking and care for them.

Several of the "other" group in the Health and Accident Hazards Requiring Treatment category pertain to situations of mental illness. Such illness may be stated as the problem leading to AD; sometimes it is inferred from descriptions about behavior that disturbs others in the community in combination with a reference to past hospitalization in connection with such behavior.

Housing. In contrast to the community development activities reports which accorded high priority to village housing needs, the case service action reports focused on individual housing problems that arose from (1) the sudden loss of shelter (usually because of fire) and, because no other housing was available, the necessity for some other family to "take them in" to an already crowded one or two-room house until another could be built; (2) the absence of supplies or money to purchase supplies requisite to starting and/or finishing a house.

Perhaps as important--or more--than housing per se is heat during the many cold months. Lack of income is not always associated with lack of fuel for the freeze-months. The problem for the individual family may obtain from oil distribution inequities, sale of contaminated gasoline (which in several instances caused the fires that destroyed homes), lack of an able-bodied person in the household to secure driftwood from the river or to procure other fuel supplies for the long winter cold, etc. Not coded as the problem but nevertheless seriously present is the limited ability or the inability of a household member to cope with the shelter and heating problems when illness or "aging too much" is the chief reason for the family's lack of income.

Educational Obstacles. With respect to adults, two orders of

educational problems were noted: the illiteracy reflected in the requests made of the HSAs to read or write letters in relation to DPW, BIA, Social Security Administration, and others, and for help in completing forms for public assistance, income tax, fishing and other licenses, and others; and the absence of job training resources.

For children and their families, the lack of school resources beyond the level of the BIA village school posed special problems. There is the mother who refused to let her young son return to Bethel for high school because she thought he had been neglected by the family with whom he was boarded. There are the families who are eager to have their children go to high school but not willing to have them sent to Oregon or some other distant location for this purpose: the idea of a four-year separation and a possible subsequent problem about the youngster's readiness to settle in the village after such a school experience is unacceptable to some families. And there are the expressed concerns of village parents about the village school to have a Native teacher who can relate the teaching and learning to the language and culture of the Native child.

Family Coping Patterns

By and large, a pattern appears in the data of complacent acceptance among village families of certain kinds of problem-situations as "givens": hunger, illness, cold, accidents, lack of employment, drinking. They seek work and, in its absence, endeavor to maintain themselves through subsistence hunting and fishing either before or in addition to requesting public aid. There is a persistent thread -- even among persons who are old or possess serious physical problems--of strivings to engage in subsistence fishing or hunting in season, or to work in a cannery during the summer months and arrange to have an adjustment in the amount or continuation of their assistance grants.

For the most part, the villagers seek medical care, although often by necessity they wait for the infrequent visit of the doctor or public health nurse to the village or contact the health aide in the village. Sometimes they try to arrange transportation to Bethel or Anchorage for requisite medical care, asking the Human Services Aide for this. Individual families also cope actively and aggressively with problems of housing. Having the materials at hand, and irrespective of age or health, men and women use their own labor to build or improve their housing.

Whether the problem is wage or welfare income, alleviation of a health or housing or fuel situation, the troubled individual often has decided on how he can cope with it, and what he is asking for then becomes the point at which the Aide picks up in the situation. Of particular significance in this is that often by the time a problem has come to the Aide's attention, some beginning coping effort has been made by the family, relatives have been involved, and in many instances the village council--or a member thereof--has been consulted about it by the client or some other interested person.

Patience seems to be a watchword, possibly culturally determined by such elements as coming to terms with a harsh environment and by acceptance of the fact that even some technological advances like air transportation and modern communication devices do not best the unremitting environment. Consequently, it appears likely that this patience--coupled with other feelings and attitudes--becomes a coping mechanism for enduring hardship while waiting through the long delays that seem to occur between the filing of a written request for assistance or for benefits (unemployment as well as Old-age, Survivors, Disability and Health benefits). It is somewhat difficult to conceive of such uncomplaining waiting in more urbanized areas when assistance is required or eligibility for benefits can be established.

From the standpoint of troubling behavior--of those who drink, of children, of mentally ill--there appears to be a high degree of tolerance before the family members turn elsewhere for help. The data suggest that there is an expectation, first, that relatives (particularly parents and their adult children) will aid each other. The next level source of help comprises neighbors and/or the village council. In some villages, the source of help to the individual increasingly seemed to be the Human Services Aide, approached either in his capacity as member of the village council or, more often, as a problem solver in the arena of human services.

Case Service Actions of Aides

Case service actions fell into three groups: single objective, episode of service, and sequential treatment or training model. The single objective was a concrete service, primarily eligibility determination or redetermination, or help with food stamps or referral to the Bureau of Indian Affairs for general relief. The objective was clearly to provide the family or person with income; case actions were prescribed, the Aide following the rules. This category also included concrete service of another kind that would help the person or family with a specific want or need other than income: referral for medical aid; writing a letter regarding a husband in the Bethel or Anchorage hospital; referring an old person to the village council for help in obtaining wood or oil. The Aide's actions were partly prescribed through training or supervision, the courses of action quite routine.

The second group, the episode of service, contained those related helping actions taken by the Aide toward a defined, usually short-term, objective. The purposive outcome might be to establish eligibility or to restore stability within the family, to remove an obstacle to family functioning, to provide supportive help over a short period, or to alleviate

a crisis. The cluster of case actions leading to a purposive outcome--this episode of service--generally did not include social change objectives, even though several case actions might be performed. The actions did not have to be taken in any particular order; any one might be prescribed, with others depending upon the Aide's judgment.

The third category of service actions, the sequential treatment or training model, was a longitudinal array of tasks comprising service to implement an employment plan or an educational plan, a program of services to bring about social or economic change, a therapeutic treatment plan, or a vocational or rehabilitation plan. This was a change model directed toward defined objectives or goals. Table 4 reveals the distribution of the case service actions by category of service approach.

Table 4

Distribution of Case Service Actions by Category of Service Approach
N = 859

Category of Service Approach	Number	Percent of N
Single Objective	561	65.3%
Episode of Service	257	29.9%
Sequential Service	41	4.8%
Total	859	100.0%

This classification of interventions by three categories of service activities was developed not alone for the purpose of assessing the nature of the HSA's responses and responsiveness to the various need types and problems they encountered. It also was intended to discern how the several actions actions undertaken by the Aide, if indeed more than one was

instituted, related to each other and to an identified objective; and, moreover, if these actions purposefully produced movement toward the attainment of the goal in the individual case situation--and of the goals of the RASS demonstration.

There was a strikingly wide range in the number and kinds of case actions undertaken by the various Human Services Aides. Every Aide performed some single objective service tasks. All but one engaged in episodes of service, these clusters of acts generally comprising two to four contacts involving different activities with reference to a problem situation that could be relieved or alleviated by service of short duration. Twelve HSAs provided sequential services. These involved several case actions in a planned sequence showing that a continuing responsibility had been assumed by the Aide in working with the client toward a mutually understood goal.

The Service Tasks

The Human Services Aides had engaged in seventeen tasks or service actions. On the basis of average rankings of these tasks by a panel of experts, five clusters of acts were conceptually demarked by inspection.[1] The five clusters and the service acts contained in each are listed below. Table 5, which follows, contains the five clusters of service tasks performed by the Aides, presented vertically, with the service approaches in the horizontal rows.

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[1]The language used in these statements of tasks is taken largely from the R-1 reports. In addition to the experts' ranking of the tasks by their increasing level of difficulty and/or complexity for the HSAs, ten randomly selected Aides also were asked to rank the tasks, as were the RASS Project Director and other administrative personnel in the Bethel District Office, the Anchorage Regional Office, and the State Office of DPW in Juneau. The Appendix contains a copy of the instructions as well as a comparison of the average rankings by these several groups in Charts I and II.

Clusters, in Order of Increasing Difficulty	Service Act Included
I. Translating, reading, and writing	1. Read or translate letter or form.
	2. Help complete eligibility forms.
	3. Assess finances, determine eligibility.
II. Facilitating communication by explaining, assessing, responding to questions	4. Respond to client's questions.
	5. Make friendly visit to client.
	6. Monitor client's problem.
	7. Simple direction or referral.
	8. Contact others to get information.
III. Exploring wants, supporting strengths, teaching, planning	9. Exploring and educating for choice.
	10. Refer client to resource but support him and accompany him.
	11. Plan service follow-up steps and deliver help.
IV. Diagnosing dysfunction, making ongoing service plan	12. Warning about inappropriate behavior.
	13. Plan next steps and write report about this.
	14. Help client find best solution to his problem.
	15. Help family group talk about their mutual problems.
	16. Identify common problems of several families and make appropriate use of resources to solve.
V. Gaining village, community, or administrative consensus for action	17. Identify similar problem that happens frequently, obtain consensus about action to take.

Translating, Reading, and Writing. Such tasks with regard to letters and forms were common because of the prevalence of illiteracy among adults in many of the villages served by the HSAs. But help also was required in comprehending the content of letters and forms received by villagers from official organizations. In particular, "notices of finding" needed interpretation, whether these came from DPW or BIA. A common notation by the Aide was "interpreted Declaration Form--because Client did not understand questions written in English." This was a problem not of illiteracy, but of understanding, or deciphering meaning.

Such tasks were sometimes fulfilled by Aides for other reasons; namely, when the client expressed anxiety about the content of a form or letter, regardless of whether he had been able to read and understand it. Mr. K, for example, "came and showed me a note from Standard Oil Company"

Table 5
Service Tasks Performed by HSAs as Reported on Case Service Action Reports, by Service Linkage and Ranked Clusters of Tasks
N=836

Service Linkage	Total		I		II		III		IV		V	
	No.	% of N	No.	% of N	No.	% of N	No.	% of N	No.	% of N	No.	% of N
Single Objective	559	65.3%	341	39.8%	183	21.4%	13	1.4%	18	2.1%	4	0.6%
Episode of Service	256	29.9	61	7.1	156	18.4	28	3.2	11	1.3	0	0.0
Sequential Service	41	4.8	0	0.0	16	1.8	19	2.0	6	0.7	0	0.0
Totals	836	100.0%	402	46.9%	355	41.6%	60	6.6%	35	4.1%	4	0.6%

and wanted the HSA to tell him "what it is all about." Mrs. K stood anxiously by, pulling at her parka and looking "very serious."

> I explained to them that it's nothing but a bill of sale, and asked him to keep it.... He wanted to know whenever they get something like the note and he received if he could come and see me. I told him any time.

Thus reassured, the Ks left. Several successive reports indicated that they returned for similar interpretation and reassurance, each time entering somberly and leaving smilingly.

Facilitating Communication by Explaining, Assessing, Responding to Questions. This cluster of service actions contained tasks with varying degrees of complexity even when the objective was the same. Thus, assessing finances and determining eligibility for a categorical assistance program of DPW, or for another resource to which the client might be referred for financial help, might be routine or require some ingenuity on the part of the Aide. Some clients knew and could establish their birth dates, for instance, so that completing a declaration of need to establish eligibility for Old Age Assistance was relatively simple. Others had no record of their birth dates, and ferreting out a means of documenting age was sometimes a challenge.

Assessing finances by and large was an uncomplicated task; sources of income are few in number and limited in amount for most of the population in the RASS area. In a number of villages, the more serious difficulty centered around either the uncertainty of when BIA aid might be forthcoming or the delay in processing of an application that also spells delay in the start of the assistance.

Friendly visiting was more common among some Aides than others. Some more than others also appeared to be aware of a bereavement in the family, or an accident which led to serious injury, or a worsening illness. The

"friendly" visits to these clients -- sometimes recipients of assitance, and sometimes not -- tended to be supportive, to provide the client with an opportunity to share some of his questions and anxieties, and to assist the family to make appropriate plans when these were needed.

It was not unusual to find overlapping descriptions for a particular task in this cluster. For example, HSA 14 made "a friendly visit to Mary" to see if she were sober. He found her "very drunk" and so he left without trying to talk with her. Several days later he returned to "see how she is" and to remind her that she was supposed to stop drinking. He viewed his monitoring task as a "friendly visit" because he knew she would have to perceive him as a "friend" in order that she would hear and respond to any "advice" he were to give her.

Exploring Wants, Supporting Strengths, Teaching, Planning. In contrast to the simple directional referral tasks that fell into the preceding cluster of service tasks, referrals of clients to resources were classified as being in this group if in the view of the HSA the client required some form of support to carry through with the referral.

The service acts included in this cluster were carried out by little more than half of the Aides. Some used these helping devices frequently, some sparingly. Some were single objective services, some added up to an episode of service, and a few were part of a sequential undertaking.

Tasks including exploration or education for making choices were evident in several kinds of situations. Illustrative is an episode of service reported by HSA 14. Always independent and self-reliant, Mr. W had found it difficult to accept that he could not continue either subsistence hunting or summer work in the cannery. He was illiterate and turned to the Aide

for assistance in applying for Social Security benefits and for Old Age Assistance. His wife presumably also was eligible for Social Security benefits, but she was "off berry picking." A few weeks later, Mr. W

> came over and asked that I help him haul wood blocks from the beach with my snow-machine. I told him that I'll do it during lunch hour, that he sould first pile the blocks up....He thanked me and went home, and he'll make a place by his home where the blocks should be laid.

In the ensuing weeks Mr. W made several similar requests of the Aide, to each of which the Aide acquiesced but stipulated a prior or subsequent action that the client should do himself. For instance, when the HSA helped to fill out a form, "I asked him to mail the questionnaire himself." Then

> he came and asked that I assist him in filling out his license for commercial fishing. I find his last years license and ask him to use it as evidence, when filling out forms at the local store. [He] thought I should fill out the papers, but I insisted that he goes up to the store and sign up along with the others.

The Aide's persistent and supportive expectation that Mr. W would do those things he was able to enabled him to test himself and find that economic dependence did deprived him neither of capacity to perform normal everyday tasks nor of self-esteem. This educational process helped him to regain the self-confidence he needed to function comfortably.

When HSA 15 called on the S family with regard to an adoption inquiry, he found the house cold, the mother ("she used to be in hospital") coughing, but unwilling to light the heater -- she "is scared of oil heaters." Freeze-up was still several months off, but the cold had begun to set in and the S's did not know how to deal with this deep pervasive fear. HSA 15 discussed with them the possible kinds of heating devices. They were sure a "wood heater will substitute for the oil heater" but they did not know how to procure one or where the money would come from. The HSA encouraged them "to

try to set aside every month to get wood heater from Sears, and we can see how they can save instead of buying some other needs," for the couple assigned the stove a higher priority. Several subsequent visits disclosed that the Ss were staying with the plan. With reference to possible follow-up, HSA 15 wrote:

> Stand by for any more problems, and I asked them to let me know when they are ready to order the wood heater. It can be fed with extra large pieces of wood and burn all night safely. I will show them.

The referral of a client to a resource posed problems in some communities that did not exist in others. The paucity of resources in some communities was accompanied by serious problems of communication and/or transportation in obtaining access to those resources that might be located elsewhere. The necessity to go to Bethel or to Anchorage for medical diagnosis or treatment in many instances resulted in the HSA making arrangements to transport the client or the client's relative, then to correspond with the medical facility on behalf of the client remaining in the village so that he or she might know the progress of the absent relative.

Of a different order of planning follow-up steps is HSA 05's report about the unmarried mother "who is embarrassed about what happened to her" and says the father is unknown and will "not support her by monthly payments, therefore she needs welfare aid." He plans to work slowly with her and "same time I will try to find her [the child's] natural father."

Diagnosing Dysfunction, Making Ongoing Service Plan. The tasks of "warning about appropriate behavior" appeared particularly in two kinds of situations: with reference to parental drinking where the drunken behavior resulted either in abusing children or wife beating, and mismanagement of money. By inference, it appeared to have been used occasionally in

talking with unmarried mothers about propriety. Again, in several such instances there was a connection with alcoholism, the mother "warned that when she gets drunk she does not take care of herself." Of interest in this connection is the fact that when the HSAs ranked the increasing complexity of the tasks they performed, six of the ten showed the warning tasks as either number 1 or number 2 -- in effect, as the easiest of the tasks to be performed. In contrast, all of the other DPW personnel and the five experts ranked it as considerably more complex.

Planning next steps and writing a report about this, helping the client to find the best solution to his problem, and helping the family group to talk about mutual problems -- such situations appeared in the reports of no more than six of the nineteen HSAs.

Although in interviews the HSAs identified common problems among families and discussed resources that might be used to deal with this broader social problem, it was found that only five Aides actually identified problems among families and then undertook steps to do something about these problems. These were in the area of housing, sanitation and electricity, increasing fuel supplies, coping with the high cost of merchandise by developing cooperatives, and other tasks that are described in the section on community activities.

Gaining Village, Community, or Administrative Consensus for Action About a Common Problem. Again, as in cluster IV above, the data supplied few experiences in identifying similar problems that occur frequently and in obtaining consensus about action that should be taken. Three of the Aides ranked this as a relatively easy task; two of these actually did engage with comparative frequency in such activities. The Aides who devoted considerable time and

effort to community development projects tended also to be the ones who were concerned about the repetition of problems among families and sought action of the village council or DPW or others--including the magistrate--in an effort to alleviate these problems. These were of several orders: some were around the behavior of families, particularly where alcoholism was present; some focused on "lack of activities for youth," some were related to conditions of living. Several Aides, however, were deeply concerned over the removal of children from family homes by the Bureau of Indian Affairs without regard for "the rights of the parents" and the "good of the children." They not only took the matter up with their own village councils and the magistrate in Bethel, but also combined their efforts in documenting their concern.

Referrals and Resources

Of significance is the finding that many of the villages served by the Aides are utterly without resources and, in numerous instances, extant required resources are not accessible to the client—or even to the Aide: weather, distance, and the cost or lack of transportation, particularly for an ill person, reduce the prospects of using some resources that might otherwise be available in other communities. But even when some resources were within reach through personal contact (like the village council or a medical aide) or correspondence, some Aides made no use of these—possibly because of the Aide's own limited use of English which restricted his written communication, or because the Aide (especially a village woman) was reluctant to reach out to such officials, or because the Aide's sense of his own adequacy caused him to insist "I do my own work!"

But many Aides were particularly creative in developing and utilizing resources in behalf of their clients. Aides in some villages were able to

call on certain resources not as readily available in the more urbanized Bethel with its greater supply of community organizations. The closeness of family ties, and indeed the geographic proximity of family members to each other, enabled Aides to exploit the strong kinship feelings by enlisting the help of family members when a relative needed a particular kind of attention. HSA 01, for instance, could arrange with the sister of his client to provide care for her two children while the mother went to the hospital for a two month period for eye surgery. With arrangements for the care of the children and the transfer of the AFDC payments to the sister completed, the mother could be ready to take the long-awaited measure of hospitalization without the anxiety that had prevented her earlier agreement to accepting needed medical care. A reiterated situation was the need of an elderly person--the mother or the father--to have regular supervision because of ill health, some loss of mental capacity to function independently or adequately, etc. Sometimes an Aide would arrange with as many as four different relatives to rotate the care and responsibility for such a relatives to assure the continuance of this kind of monitoring or supervision for the elderly or ill person remaining in his own home.

Not infrequently, the Aide himself became the client's "resource," transporting clients to medical care by boat or snowmobile, repairing washing machines and other mechanical devices for clients, hauling wood and other fuel to elderly clients, caring for children in the sudden absence of parents, even sharing personal food.

3

Community Development Activities

There were wide variations in the extent to which Aides involved themselves

in community development activities in their respective villages. The major means by which the Aides accounted for their community activities was the Community Development Report. Not all Aides submitted such reports; some submitted as many as 45. All Aides, however, made village baseline surveys--some for more than one village; and all Aides prepared resource rosters for at least one village. The data for this segment of the evaluation, therefore, was drawn from various sources: 181 Community Development Reports, representing 31 separate villages among the 50 in the RASS project; 22 village baseline surveys—nine from the 20 Yukon group of villages, and 13 from the 30 Kuskokwim group; and resource rosters for 44 villages. Important sources of data also were the interviews with the Aides and memoranda and other correspondence pertaining to social problems, inquiries, and actions.

Village Needs and Problems

The needs and problems reported in the village surveys and elsewhere among the data closely paralleled the problems identified as paramount for individual village families: lack of income and/or employment; alcoholism; obstacles to education, housing lacks; accidents and life or health hazards; water and sanitation problems; the problem of being aged; lack of facilities for community meetings or for activities for teenagers or others in the village; problems centering on transportation, communication, and mail service; and others.

Categories of Community Service Interventions

The three major categories used in reference to case service actions also were applied in analyzing data derived from the several sources that would provide insights into the community development roles of the Aides. The single objective community development service activities were performed

to meet a specific, current, concrete village need or problem. The episode of community development service activities comprised purposeful multiple related helping actions related to working toward meeting a village need or working toward the solution of a village problem. The activities did not have to be conducted in a prescribed order, but were aimed toward achieving an immediate or short-range goal. Sequential community development service activities constituted a longitudinal treatment, training, or charge model of service directed toward longer range developmental goals of village life.

There were numerous illustrations of single objective services among Yukon and Kuskokwim Aides: initiating an inquiry regarding a work project, holding a community meeting to interpret the Food Stamp program, assisting in a community operation to obtain signatures on land claim forms, and others. There was considerable evidence that a fair proportion of the Aides in the Group K as well as Group Y villages were uncertain as to whether they have the authority to do more than concrete single objective community development service. Indeed, there was reason to believe that some Aides wondered whether they were authorized to undertake even the single objective service.

A third of the Group Y and half of the Group K Aides offered examples of activities that could be categorized as episodes of service focused on community development: actions such as those that involved several contacts over time toward developing more village activities for the young people, or working to secure and complete a sanitation project, or undertaking to obtain a village work project and organizing and supervising the work crews.

Only three in each group of Aides described sequential community development activities. These were directed toward planning, developing, and implementing several kinds of village cooperatives; working as board member of Community

Enterprises Development Corporation, a non-profit organization attempting to develop income for remote villages; and working with the Alaska Community Action program to promote and develop more cooperatives. Again, some questions or doubts were expressed by the Aides as to whether they were "authorized" to engage in such long-term, developmental, social change efforts. The Aide from Mountain Village expressed his concern as follows:

> [HSA] assists toward cooperatives through planning and consulting; could do more if authorized to get into these cooperative efforts. Since we have no official permit to do these things, we are very limited at this time. A lot of time will be consumed in these important long-term efforts. But as I said before, we are not officially to do these things. Sure we deal with our own people, but there comes a time we have no authority to do these things. We are not everything.

While this expression is more open and clear than others, it does not indicate the source from which this Aide believed the "authorization" should come. By inference, it is probable that such "authorization" should derive from supervisors, for the Aide seems to be confident of the appropriateness of his work with his own people. The doubt or question of "authorization" must necessarily fall among the white "authorities" with whom he deals as his "superiors" on the job.

There are several outstanding illustrations of a treatment or change model. One is an Aide's continual interpretation at every opportunity of the rights and responsibilities of the people as citizens, his help to them in writing to their representatives and senators concerning their views about problems that affect and concern Natives. Another Aide continuously worked with the village council and with the people to explain the Kuskokwim Fishing Cooperative, to urge the people to support it and take an active part; the Aide succeeded in eliciting local support and in obtaining eight board members

for the cooperative. He has initiated discussion about additional cooperatives. Another Aide has been instrumental in "surveying the village" as a step toward engaging the active involvement of the village council in developing one or more cooperatives.

A Group Y Aide is working closely with the village council to help the members "change their thinking" about the economic problem of the village as "natural" and try to involve them in planning for the economic improvement of their village, with work projects as a first goal, and participation in cooperatives as another major goal. He urges the village council to view the economic problem of families as a "village" problem and to take specific steps toward answering the problem. As he puts it, "Better than just sit and wait for worsening of problems." He interprets and demonstrates his own availability for service to the village council and to the people to help them help themselves. One of the Aides

> made home made toilet with vent and showed it quite a few people. None copied it. Brought up the cause for the bunkers [for sewage disposal, "exposed very close to the village"] filling up, tried to explain cans fill them up.

He is persisting with these modeling and training efforts to improve the health level of village life.

Village Projects

Aides were involved in a variety of village projects. The range of these is shown in the partial list that follows:

(1) Project HIRE - Aide is communication link between employee and employer

(2) Work on Head-start Project - securing teachers and teachers aides

(3) Village electrification project

(4) Developing Food Stamp Program in village

(5) Work on Village Ceramic Project (through Community Enterprise Development Corporation)

(6) Neighborhood Youth Corps Project

(7) Building village community hall

(8) Village Clean-up Project

(9) Developing Special Education Program for Summer

(10) Working on BIA Summer Employment Training Program for Young People

(11) Working with Standard Oil Company of California to install storage tanks for village year-around fuel supply

(12) Develop Teen Age Community Meeting and Council with Teenage officers

Other kinds of projects also were undertaken. The Bethel Aide, for example, while still in the first training phase which included field supervision by the summer Head Start Principal,[1] began to reach out to parents of children repeatedly absent from school (Head Start, elementary and higher grades), interpreting to parents the importance of schooling for the children and for their own fulfillment of the parental role in supporting the child's regular attendance. There was a noticeable improvement in regularity of school attendance.

The Toksook Bay Aide undertook to teach a class of adults about money management and use of bank facilities, explaining the later concept by comparing saving in a bank with summer fishing and preparation of salmon for storage and use as a winter food supply.

HSA Entry into Community Problem-Solving. Those Group Y and Group K Aides who engaged in some form of community activity became involved in various

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[1] The High School Counselor during the regular academic year.

ways. The most common point of entry was with or through the village council. Sometimes the Human Services Aide was the initiator. HSA 04, for example,

> went to see the village council president for the permission to take some of their time in village people meeting. I explained to the people that food stamp agent and other agency are available as their resources.

In the instances of HSA 13, somewhat older than HSA 04, the invitation was issued to him by the council president:

> During the village meeting at community hall Mr. President of Village open the meeting and discuss about Village police and school boards, what they should have in their village....During the meeting before they adjourn the meeting President of Village Council ask me if I have anything to say. I explain what I have learned during my training....Some do ask about the land claims. I explain the land claim best as I can....Village council have ask me about the Social Security man suppose to visit their village and never show up in february. I answer them that I would write a letter to Social Security Administration.

This Aide did write to the Social Security Administration and seek additional information about land claims, then returned at a later point to this village to report. Again he was asked questions regarding concerns of several people in the village, and he used the occasion of the village meeting for interpretation and information.

In one instance, HSA 19 called on the president of the village council in a non-duty station village and

> ask him if any Boys of age 18 or 21 wanted to go to Job Corp could see the man when he comes. I didn't have community meeting. Most of the Boys with most of the people never came back yet from beaver trapping at that time....
>
> I visit some people [and asked] if they ever had work project. They say they never had no project. They were all interested in this program. So I've told them where they could ask for the Grand. and also they have to think of the ways to use the money.

Having planted the seed of interest with the village council president and various residents of village, this Aide waited until a subsequent visit to

this village and an invitation to meet with the village council to consider ways of obtaining and using the "grand." The community service reports of two Human Services Aides were responsive to the same invitation from an official to assist in the completion of applications regarding land claims. Both Aides accepted the invitations and worked with the official in their respective BIA village schools. Some of the difference in approach by HSAs to their tasks in the community are evident in the manner in which each reported this particular "community" activity. HSA 15 states

> Mrs.-- from Bethel came to discuss allotment applications and evidence of occupancy. They asked me to help fill out forms and get the birthdates of the eligible people. People discussed about Land Claims, and that each eligible people was to get 160 acres of land. ...I would like to have you [the RASS supervisor] explain more about these forms next time when I am in Bethel. How they are used and for what.

Apparently HSA 16 had not seen the connection between this kind of service and a village-wide activity and goal. Nor did a subsequent interview hint that there was such an interpretation. In contrast, HSA 04 reported:

> I helped--on applications for land allotment....The process was slow, but progress was great....In BIA school class room. Willing people completed the required applications for Land Allotment. Land Allotment is for pin pointing the hunting, trapping and subsistence used area. All Native people were eligible and most of the Village people were interested and we helped them much as we can. There is also delayed applications and renewals to make.

Village councils or individuals connected with organizations outside the village--either the duty station or another village under the human service auspices of the HSA--directed requests to HSAs for specific activities. Thus, the Group Y Aide serving Russian Mission attended a special council meeting in the community store building.

> Purpose of the meeting, the council had sent a letter to me requesting my assistance with drawing up papers for their incorporation, also with new City ordinances that they have desires to adopt.

This Aide complied with the request, completing the papers where necessary for incorporation—a measure preliminary to the village being able to borrow funds or to obtain grants for the conduct of various village improvement activities. This episode of service continued a range of tasks connected with the incorporation process and the endeavor to obtain work projects for this village.

The HSA from Toksook Bay was asked by the representative of the Alaska Native Industries Corporation Association to undertake some activities with regard to the Nightmute Native Store.

> He explain that the Native Store is up and down currently, this means that the Native Store is really needing improving. Also the manager is illiterate. He encourage me to work with the Native Store Manager, and help him ordering merchandise every two weeks. He also promise me that everything he wrote to the manager and to the village council, he will provide me the copy of his correspondence.

This episode of service involved a wide variety of activities related to the operation and management of the Native store, and helping the manager to carry out his responsibilities.

Sometimes the HSAs initiated steps for implementing ideas they had for village improvement, then involved villagers--including village council and other persons--in supporting the plan developed. Sometimes this device was utilized because villagers either were discouraged with making an effort in a particular direction or, for other reasons, thought that the proposal was not realizable. In this fashion one Aide approached an oil company to procure petroleum products for a group of villages in the face of discouraging responses from the oil company and various governmental officials who cited timing, weather, transportation, and other obstacles. Undaunted, he enlisted the interest of a United States Senator, and offered to supply the oil company whatever data were needed in order to assure the building of the storage plant in the vicinity of this Aide's villages.

He communicated to the village council that he would have to visit each family to find about the usage of gasoline and stove oil. The community development report explains:

> So I visited 46 families plus other owners, the pool hall and bingo hall and community hall. They gave me the information I wanted for the Standard Oil Company of Anchorage. I also advise the families about the plans of the Standard Oil Company, at the present time there is no doubt. Every one of these families highly recommend me to keep on working on it. Because petroleum products are really affecting the families. Now the village councils are very interested. I will keep on working this petroleum products. Now the people are aware of the plans of the Standard Oil Company.

It is noteworthy that in the instance of this successful effort to bring fuel supplies into the group of five villages and to arrange storage of a sufficient supply for continued use, this Aide also was engaged in a training or change model of service directed towards a longer term developmental goal of the group of villages.

Classification of Community Activity Functions of HSAs

Twenty major tasks or functions were performed by the Aides in connection with the community phase of the RASS project. It was rare that any single Aide performed all of them or served all of these functions in his villages, although it appears possible that each of the four men (from K and Y villages) who seemed best able to understand and implement the community development aspects of their role might have performed most of them. This classification is not weighted; nor does it imply any priority rating. In some instances it was explicit in the document or statement, in some instances inferred by the researchers.

(1) Counseling: with members of the National Youth Corps in reference to their jobs; individual and group counseling used;

(2) Linking: serving as the link between the village council and the company or agency with whom the Aide is working to develop a village project;

(3) Interpreting: own role, RASS and other agencies, services, the village council to agencies, the Eskimo language to English and English to Eskimo;

(4) Initiating: projects, developments;

(5) Organizing: meetings, summer projects;

(6) Representing: village council to others; RASS to other people, etc.;

(7) Serving as an official: as elected member of village council, school board, offices of these;

(8) Facilitating: of the work of both individuals and groups, and of village council and/or village projects;

(9) Serving as catalyst: stirring up interest in a project, problem, or possibilities of development;

(10) Enabling: making it possible for others to perform their jobs better--store managers, food stamp agents, health Aides;

(11) Educating: explaining forms, agencies, projects, programs, own role, developing understanding of problems and possibilities;

(12) Enlisting: the interest and cooperation of village council, other individuals or entire village;

(13) Planning: meetings, ways of reaching interested people in village and those in agencies needed;

(14) Factfinding: as in some parts of the survey, gathering informating to be used for procuring a grant, etc.;

(15) Assessing: need, situation, difficulties, potentials, resources;

(16) Implementing: the wishes of the village council or of the entire village, following a meeting and agreement;

(17) Evaluating: results and next moves;

(18) Consulting: with store managers, food stamp agents, teachers, school principals;

(19) Serving as spokesman: advocating--for individuals who need time to pay for groceries, loans for hospital transportation; for groups--e.g., a teenage group wanting to use the community hall for a dance; for the village council or village to secure an opportunity available for improvement.

(20) Reporting: by speaking and writing, the results, significance.

Examination of this classification of functions of the Human Services Aides in relation to the classification of actual service interventions further showed that the bulk of the interventions fell within the category of single objective service, with a few coming within the category of episode of service, and only five within the sequential service category, or the treatment and training (social change) model of service.

Such results are to be expected in view of the demands placed upon the Aides. It is certainly easier to respond to and deal with the needs for immediate, direct, concrete services in the community development components of their work. Indeed, such immediate, direct, and concrete highly visible actions on the part of the Aides are crucial in reference to their ability to demonstrate their usefulness to the village councils and the villagers. They are important also to the Aides' perceptions of their own adequacy. Moreover, the high visibility of their actions and some results are essential to their acceptance by the village councils and villagers as a basis for further long-term work that may not yield such immediate results, but eventually may enable the village people to take full responsibility for their own lives, to develop alternatives for their own choices, to control their own institutions, and to contribute to the larger quality of life in the State of Alaska.

The comparatively few reports submitted regarding community service interventions that link with the social change or training models nevertheless show that there are potentials, at least within some of the 19 Human Services Aides, to become able to do more within the social change or training model if certain conditions are met. The first of these is a clear understanding on their part that they are authorized to engage in such long-term efforts

as enlisting the participation of the villagers in the development of co-operatives and other economically based measures. Another is a clear understanding of the significance of such interventions. A third is a clear understanding by analysis and example of what is involved and how to intervene effectively within the perspective of the social change or training model--in other words, providing the HSAs with a model they can follow helps them to use themselves as training models. And the fourth, requires an input of resources to be used for such sequential, long-term goals and development.

Insofar as it is possible to determine from the recorded and verbal statements, the question or doubts about the Aides' far-reaching community development efforts stem from some uncertainty as to whether the white "authorities" sanction these efforts, and really delegate to the Aides this kind of responsibility. In some instances as well, there is question as to whether the village councils and villagers themselves are willing to cooperate with the Aides in such social and institutional change efforts. It is as though the Aides sensed the import of their linking themselves with efforts that essentially challenge the white "establishment," and some withdraw from such challenge. After many years of being done to and for by the "gussaks" it is not surprising that there are perceptual, emotional, cognitive, and cultural barriers to such challenge.

Some Factors Affecting Community Service Activities

Discernible in the preceding material are various factors that positively or negatively affect either the undertaking of, or progress in, community service activities. The size, composition, and location of the village may combine to reduce the likelihood that such a village can become economically self-sufficient given these present conditions. Problems in transportation

and communication that involve long delays as well as expense on reliance on the vagaries of mail delivery and weather, contribute to frustrating postponement of results of activity and thereby lessen the potential for the initiation of new activities.

But other factors also are present. HSA 01, for example, reports "Plans to complete sanitation facilities project, work to begin as soon as weather and thaw conditions permit." Two and a half months later, in June, the first phase of the work is ready to begin. In August, however, this Aide anticipates the early "freeze up" which will bring to a halt this sanitation project until "break-up." Another Aide reports that the village council has brought to a close all except emergency business, for during the summer period almost all families will be in fish camps and unavailable for continuing with any community activity. The seasonal subsistence which, in time, is congruent with the season in which building can take place in the villages, combines with weather to form an obstacle to the ready completion of some projects that might be undertaken.

The nature and degree of involvement of others in planning or implementing community activities in various ways influences the existence or course of a community activity. Although there is considerable reason to believe that the villagers are not adverse to change that they can see as being to the benefit of themselves or the village as a whole, there are also indications of various kinds that involvement and participation is apt to be a slow and cautious process. What is required in the smaller villages undoubtedly would differ from what is required in the town of Bethel. In fact, the latter seems to have some of the same problems characteristic of larger urban settings. For example the Bethel Aide on two consecutive days reported the following:

> Went to the board meeting for the "Adult Education." The board members [of which the Aide is one] talked about the Adult Education which will start tomorrow....I am to work at reception at this meeting.
>
> [Next day:] The Adult school board members were at the school to welcome the adults who were supposed to take part in the basic education in the evenings, but no one showed up except the teachers and board members.

What means were used to engage the potential adult students in the planning and operation of this program? Who was the target group? And how did they know what was being planned in their interest? No analytic speculation was entered on the Aide's reports, nor did subsequent reports refer to this unsuccessful meeting. Both the failure of any subsequent report to refer to any follow-up regarding this meeting, and the silent shrug that greeted the question posed in an informal conference with one of the teachers and a board member, posit questions as to the extent to which there is simply an acceptance of uninvolvement as unquestioned indication of disinterest--so "why bother?"

Lack of involvement appears in other forms in the various reports on hand. With the exception of one woman HSA who spoke about foster home care licensing at a Parent and Teachers Organization meeting, and one report wherein one woman Aide assisted in taking applications for land claims, no other community development reports were submitted by either of the two woman Aides in the communities outside Bethel. Nor did their interviews disclose any particular activity with relation to the community as a whole. This underscores the previously posed questions about whether the role of women in the villages on the whole is such that they have freedom to engage in activities that would take them beyond the one-to-one relationship to a relationship that encompasses more of the members of the village. Is it a matter of individual personality? Is it related to perceptions of privacy--

their own or that of others? One Aide is married to a member of the village council, but seemingly on no occasion has she approached or been approached by the council for participation--her own or theirs--in a community undertaking. Nor has one brought to their attention the repeated family-by-family problems that add up to a village social problem which might be of concern to this governing body.

The other woman Aide, in recounting to the research interviewer some of the things she had gained from her Anchorage training experience, commented on new insights into the importance of nutrition for children. She planned to apply this new learning to her own sizeable family of children. To the researcher's question as to whether she planned to communicate some of this to other people--especially mothers--in the village as part of her human services function, she replied affirmatively; there was no follow-up on this as of this writing.

Another factor of relationships has to be taken into account. This is the matter of factionalism within villages--distrust and conflict that some villagers feel towards members of certain families who may be currently or in the recent past of particular importance in the village power structure. When the Aide is a member of such a family, as is true in several instances, the Aide may also be viewed with distrust, resentment, and sometimes overt anger. There is also the question of whether certain Aides feel their youth is a barrier in the involvement of older village members in the kinds of community activities that might be undertaken in their respective villages.

Some question likewise might be posed with regard to the extent of current stress felt by Aides--as well as others in the village--with regard to the role of the white man in facilitating or impeding the course of a community activity. One Aide, for example, wrote in his village baseline survey:

> Something is wrong when our government will dig a well for just a few white people and all the rest of the people in the village have to pack water from a quarter of a mile away. If the government can do it for the teachers, can it do it for the whole village? When we ask something like this, the answer is still the same--no money. Millions of dollars are badly needed for a number of our villages.

One pervasive impression emerges from close study of the available village surveys and community development reports. There are great personal strengths within these 19 Aides and within the villages and villagers that can be drawn upon, developed, and put to work for the achievement of their personal and village goals. The data confirmed that most of the 19 Aides could do a great deal more in community development efforts if they were given clear, unambiguous messages about their authorization and responsibility, and if they were given assistance, support, and resources to do that which matches and challenges their demonstrated capabilities and capacities.

It is never simple to work with groups of people and/or their representatives to clarify the people's own perceptions of needs and problems, their own wishes and goals, their own priorities. How much more difficult this is in a village society that is in the midst of accelerated social change, and is attempting to cope with tremendous and often opposing forces of environmental and cultural shock! That so many of the Aides have been able to work as productively as they have within the limits of their brief training and within the limits of the brief work time span covered within the purview of this report, is a tribute to their personal strength and abilities and to those of the villagers who became their collaborators in these efforts. Indeed, the analysis disclosed that both quantitatively and qualitatively several Aides have achieved some remarkable successes in their community activities. The surveys prepared by the two women Aides show no

community development efforts at all, and one wonders whether the role of women in Eskimo village culture makes that an appropriate or impossible expectation.

4

Outcomes

Direct Service

From the analysis of the data relative to the direct services to clients, it was found that individual Human Services Aides had responded responsibly to meeting social and economic needs and had made marked progress in alleviating distress and helping families to move towards improved social and economic functioning. There is undoubted unevenness both with regard to quantity and quality of performance from Aide to Aide; some operate at a relatively high level, others have supplied limited evidence of accomplishment other than completing routinely required procedures related to financial eligibility. This appears in part to be a function of the individual's personality, in part (particularly with regard to the women Aides in the villages) the role of women in the Native culture; and in part it may be attributed to the limited ability of the individual to express himself in writing, or orally to the interviewer.

As was expected, all of the Aides engaged in eligibility determination, using the self-declaration form for money payment as well as engaging in various activities that would enable the needy person to obtain the documentary or other evidence required to establish his eligibility.[1] The high rate

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[1]Not all evidence produced by the Aides was "documentary" in the usual sense. For example, one applicant had no means of obtaining the requisite medical examination that would be the basis for determining that he was permanently and totally disabled within the meaning of the legal requirements for this categorical public assistance. The Aide took a photograph of the client, thus providing visual evidence of a disabling condition that qualified him for the requed relief.

of illiteracy among the Natives was a limiting factor in the extent to which self-declaration forms could be used. It is probable that the Aides undertook more action in helping clients to complete such forms than had been anticipated; without doubt, however, this was a positive result of the use of "social service assistance indigenous to the rural areas" that were to be served.

Certain services had been stipulated in the project proposal.[1] Some of these were carried out to a considerable extent, others only occasionally. Some help was given by some Aides with regard to money management; some advice was offered with regard to child rearing—and in some instances, children were placed outside the home in order to have the kinds of opportunities they required for development; various measures were taken towards the improvement of living conditions, such as encouraging the attainment of improved housing, procuring fuel as needed, etc.

Some measures were taken on a community-wide basis to improve living conditions and to develop various community resources such as adult education programs. However, except for Bethel and for one or two of the larger villages, organizing day care facilities and carrying out some of the other proposals encompassed by this group of service objectives were not within the realm of early possibility. Some related steps were taken, though, that are of particular value. For example, it had been fairly common to place children requiring out-of-home care in communities outside of their home villages, sometimes at distances so great that they were unable to maintain contact with the family either because of transportation problems or the fact that the family members were illiterate and could not correspond with

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[1]See Chapters I and III (this report) for specified objectives.

the absent child. A number of the Aides were able to develop foster homes within their own villages so that at least for temporary care the child could be near the family home, a situation of importance to him as well as the child's family.

Family planning services were specified as a goal in the RASS proposal. Subsumed under this were educational services to prevent birth out of wedlock, and medical contraceptive services to those wishing such services (in co-operation with and referral to the Alaska Native Health Service). Although the actions reported on some of the case action forms were concerned with service to mothers whose children were born out of wedlock, in only one instance was the subject of family planning per se raised. In this situation, the mother of the unmarried client angrily refused to permit the Aide to proceed with any discussion of this subject, pointing out that now that her daughter had had a child, the mother herself was seeing to it that the daughter knew what she needed to know. Although family planning was a subject included in the Aide's formal training, there is no evidence either from recorded material or from research interviews that beyond the single situation referred to, any service was offered in this area. It must be borne in mind, however, that with the exception of Bethel which had access to medical care, the villages could only expect to have an occasional visit from a nurse or a doctor and transportation to the medical facilities in Bethel or elsewhere was too expensive and hazardous to undertake. Consequently, aside from educational services which appeared not to be available in the villages, medical contraceptive services which would require medical supervision from time to time, had some practical limits in application.

The work of the Aides in regard to children led to a marked increase in the request for legal adoptions, and there also was a noticeable increase in

the number of families inquiring about becoming foster parents in certain villages. Protective services for children were undertaken on a number of occasions, and a particular focus of attention by most of the Aides was the prevention of child abuse and neglect. The degree of success with regard to the latter two was considerably limited by the fact that the need for such services frequently was related to the problem of alcoholism in the family, a problem not readily amendable to the services available.

The charge to provide referral services in most villages was carried out to a considerable degree within the limits of the resources that were available or could be developed. Most of the Human Services Aides were particularly resourceful in locating resources which could be called upon to be of help to the client--even when the resource was the Aide himself, who not infrequently transported clients to medical care by boat or snowmobile, repaired washing machines and other mechanical devices of clients, hauled wood and other fuel to elderly clients, etc.

With regard to the expectation that the indigenous Aides would provide services not only to those receiving financial assistance but also to persons formerly or potentially in financial need, the Aides unquestionably fulfilled the functions expected of them. The data point to an increasing number of non-aided clients who were being provided services of various kinds by the Aides--services that would help these people to retain or attain an improved level of social functioning.

From the standpoint of whether the findings of the evaluative research undertaking pointed to achievement of the direct services aspects of the RASS demonstration, the evidence is strongly affirmative. At the same time, the analysis underscored the almost overwhelming obstacles confronting villagers and service-delivery personnel in coping with problems of sheer survival and

in endeavoring to channel energies and manpower and other resources into effective coping efforts to correct problems and clear the way towards the next levels of problem-resolution: prevention of problems, and self-realization.

The investment of warm dedication, creativity and innovation--even varying as these did in degree and kind with each Aide and village--yielded results that can only be viewed as positive: the provision of needed but otherwise unavailable human services in far-flung isolated communities with limited resources.

The fact that so much could be done in the face of limits imposed on accessibility of supervision by geographic and communication factors of gigantic scale is a particular tribute to the Native talents of the Aides, the readiness of Natives to embrace helpful change, and the perseverance of staff in the Division of Public Welfare.

Irrefutably apparent, however, were findings that pointed to the fact that while one-to-one service is beneficial and essential, the pervasiveness of some individual and family problems and needs suggests that the individual approach must be offered in tandem with approaches dealing with problems on a broader community scale. When individual or family needs add up to a social problem in the village or community, the best avenue for alleviation may be action on a more comprehensive scale than tackling problems only family-by-family.

Community Development

Communication through the written word and especially in response to particular forms is probably the least customary type of communication for the Aides. Thus the village surveys and community development reports may be an inaccurate or, at least, incomplete reflection of what has been accomplished. Certainly there was wide variation in the nature, completeness,

and flow of the surveys and community development reports. Some are rich with concrete and detailed descriptions of the life of the people in the villages, problems encountered, coping efforts of the villagers, and the work of the Human Services Aides. Some, although laconic, convey much through the very sparseness and spareness of wording. Others, likewise terse, offer only a superficial glimpse of the work of the Aide.

It is important to note that none of the village surveys or community development reports contain evidence of a broader village or public health approach to coping with several serious health problems. There are concerted efforts to effect specific improvements for securing water, sewage, and sanitation for several of the villages, and these are extremely important efforts. They are specific, visible, essential, and basic. But one might speculate, for example, about the reasons for no mention of any larger village or public health approach to a major health problem that affects so many Eskimo children--otitis media (serious middle ear infection) that leaves severe residual hearing impairment. Is this omission because of the perception that this is a health problem and consequently not properly within the function of the Human Services Aide? Is it omitted because the health aides in collaboration with public health nurses apparently are dealing with concern about this problem? Or to lack of recognition that there is any possible approach beyond a case-by-case family approach as the children are stricken with this infection?

The same question is appropriate in reference to reasons for lack of a broader village or community approach to alcoholism or to accident-proneness as major village problems, or to family planning as a public health issue and reflection of a broad, social problem.

Of course, it must be underscored that public health approaches to any or all of these social-health problems require the input of resources (funds, knowledge, talents, and services) upon which the Aides may draw to begin such public health approaches and to maximize their potential and use. Otherwise the "case-by-case" approach to the accident victim and the "talking to each family with severe alcoholic problem," and the approach to each child with otitis media constitute the only recourse left to the Aide who wishes to assist with problem solving. The public health approach also addresses more realistically the inter-relatedness of these problems--economic, employment, education, housing, and health, with all their continuing "feedback" or interactional effects, each upon all the others.

It is evident that the Aides are more comfortable in working on the immediate, concrete, visible services. The crucial importance of meeting the needs toward which the services are directed is undeniable from the point of view both of the daily life and survival of the people in the villages, and from the necessity for the Aides to demonstrate to the villagers and to themselves their competence and usefulness. These accomplishments must form the basis for longer-term efforts that will require a different quality of involvement on the part of the villagers and the Aides, and that essentially are based on hope and investment in their own future. They require a sorting out of what they really want for themselves and their children--the opportunities that must and could be developed and increase, the right and responsibility of themselves and their children to choose among them, and to become, at least in part, what they themselves wish to be. Perhaps the greatest wonder is that the village surveys and community development reports carry so much evidence of even slight beginnings of the collaborative work of a few of the 19 Aides with their villages, in such directions. That there

are such inklings attests to the strengths of the people, villagers and Aides, and to the existence of some hope.

The analysis of the community development data definitely pointed to some effective achievements by a half dozen Aides of the RASS community development expectations; the data also disclosed that lesser beginnings in community development were made by a few, with some Aides seemingly making no effort at all in this area of the RASS demcnstration. Some of the reasons are obviously connected with what the Aide himself brings to the job, some to the circumstances in which he finds himself—and his villages. But some relate to the other dimensions of the RASS demonstration—particularly training, supervisory and administrative supports, and coordination factors.

CHAPTER

IV

SUPERVISORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORTS, AND COORDINATION FUNCTIONS

> It is difficult to bring up something that we may need in the future ....
>
> Communication with the District Office. At the moment the only way we can communicate with the Office is through the mail and this can't give us much freedom as does other areas where they have telephones ....
>
> Maybe we'd all [Aides] get the opportunity to see overall of the headquarters whom we work under, and by then we can express our likes and dislikes direct to the people we work for....

In preparation for the transfer of the Human Services Aides from the RASS demonstration positions to the status of full-fledged State employees within the Division of Public Welfare, Aides had been solicited for suggestions for the agenda of a three-day meeting for all Aides to be held in Bethel in November, 1970. The above excerpts from three letters from Aides in response to this invitation contain some clues to certain factors that affected the project and consequently influenced its effectiveness and outcomes.

There can be no doubt that a demonstration like that proposed and carried out for organization and delivery of human services in rural Alaska in large measure must be dependent not alone upon the quality of the indigenous personnel recruited for the work to be performed in the villages, but also on the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the supervisory and administrative attention and support afforded them.

One specific goal of the RASS demonstration had been identified as "coordination"--particularly of agencies and services that might be focused on the same target group as the work of the Aides; the project proposal outlined certain devices to be established for this coordination task. In effect, the coordinating activity likewise would be supportive to the overall purpose and role of the Human Services Aides as they carried out their village tasks.

The evaluative research examined separately the supervisory and administrative supports, and the coordination activities--although in many respects the same sources of data were utilized: interviews within and outside the Division of Public Welfare, correspondence, and memoranda and resports of various kinds. This Chapter will present some of the data and findings from these two areas of the evaluation.[1]

1

The Organizational and Administrative Arrangements in RASS

As is shown in the Chart of Functional Relationships below, under the direction of the Director of the Division of Public Welfare the Chief Staff Development Supervisor carried administrative supervision responsibility for the RASS Project. The Project Director reported directly to him and supervised the two coordinators. Each of these supervised a group of Human Services Aides, one the nine Group Y Aides and the other the ten in Group K Aides. In the absence of either coordinator the other substituted in the supervisory capacity as occasion demanded.

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[1]These areas are separately presented in the fuller research report, Op. Cit.

The public welfare responsibilities for the Bethel District--which included more villages than were contained in the RASS demonstration--were lodged with the Bethel District Office, supervised by the District Office representative. Accountable to the representative of the Region in Anchorage, he had responsibility for two groups of personnel (other than clerical personnel, not shown in this chart): the eligibility workers to whom the HSAs directed assistance applications, budget changes, and reinvestigations; and the social work personnel, including the child welfare worker.

There was a generally comfortable informal working relationship among the coordinators, the Human Services Aides, and the staff in the Bethel District Office. However, responsibility for developing and maintaining working relationships with the District Office as well as with the Regional Representative rested with the Project Director primarily.

From time to time in the first few months of the demonstration, there had been confusion about lines of responsibility and authority. Changes in personnel in the Bethel District Office as well as the leadership in the RASS Project had led to the Bethel HSA "helping out" the short-staffed Bethel District by doing a number of tasks at the request of District personnel for which there was no accountability to the RASS supervisor. Nor were the tasks within the scope of the RASS demonstration. At the same time the two coordinators "pitched in to help out" with a variety of tasks, also outside the scope of the project. Under other circumstances such cooperative activities would have been commendable. In this instance this "cooperation" meant a pulling away of time and staff from the objectives of the demonstration, and a corresponding degree of confusion as to who was being supervised by whom, who was to

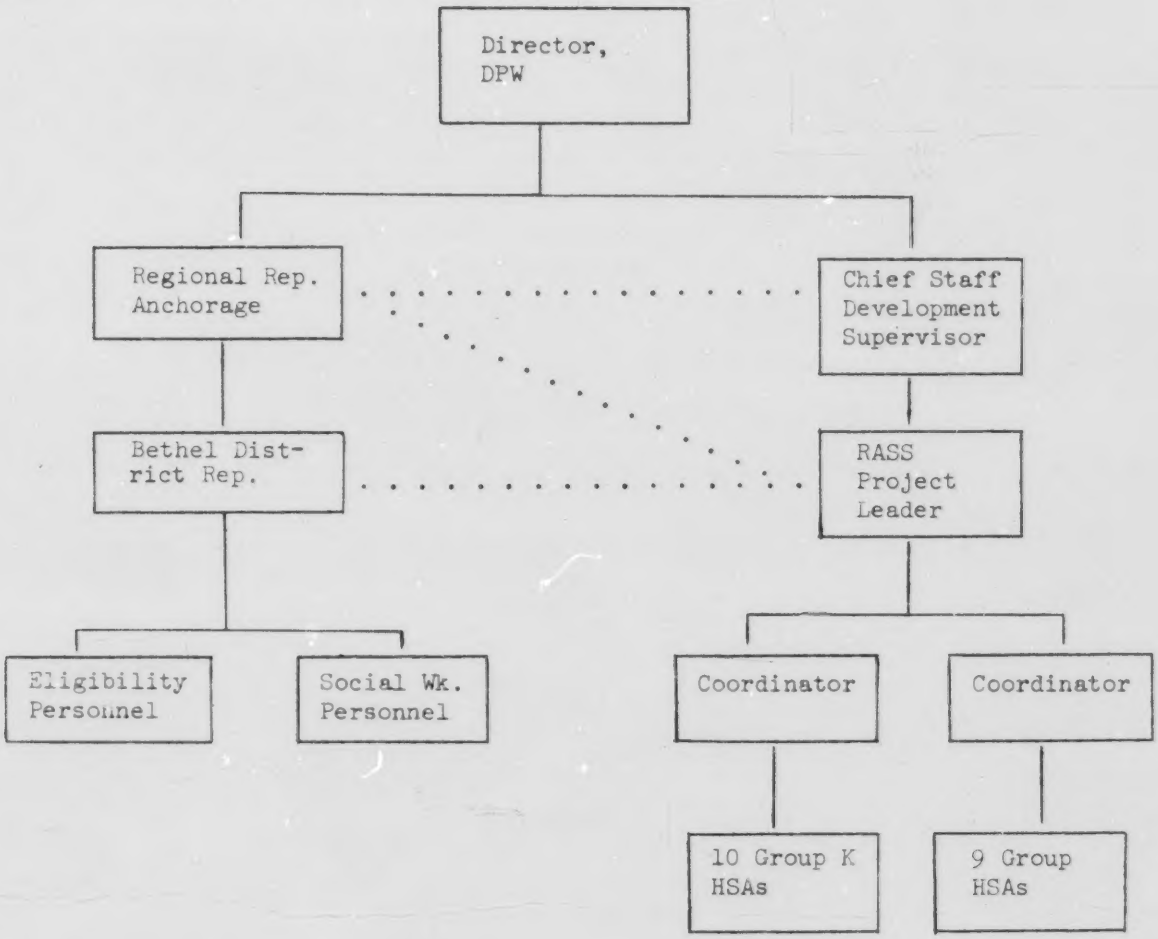
make assignments to the Aides (not only the one stationed in Bethel), and what kinds of duties were appropriately under the auspices of RASS and not being undertaken. With the assumption of administrative responsibility for RASS by the Chief Staff Development Supervisor, who joined DPW in September of 1969, and shortly thereafter the appointment of a Bethel District Representative, the lines of responsibility were clarified--but not without some loss of time to the project.

Subsequently, there was general acceptance that the coordinator was to determine whether a task was appropriate for the Aide to undertake as "something extra" and that the supervisory relationship required the coordinator to be fully aware of the nature and kind of work performed by the Aides in fulfillment of their HSA function in the demonstration.

Initially the Aides were delegated responsibility for the active DPW caseload in the respective villages they served; as a reinvestigation or a social study became due, this information was routed to the Aide with a request that the work be done. Not until April, 1970 were lists of village cases supplied the Aides. The supervisors could then begin to work with them on workload management and developing a systematic arrangement for time-connected tasks that needed to be planned and performed.

By that time, however, there no longer appeared to be any question that sound supervisory practice as well as the needs of the demonstration itself required the delegation to the HSAs of the caseload responsibility, and the delegation to the two supervisors of full responsibility for working with the Aides in a supervisory relationship. Planning with regard to changes or expansion in HSA assignments or modifications in processes generally were arrived at in conferences that included at least

Functional Relationships, RASS and Other
DPW Personnel



the RASS Project Director, the coordinators, and the Bethel District Representative. On some occasions others also participated in such conferences. Such sessions tended to support the location of supervisory responsibility and authority.

2

Supervisory Supports: Coordinators and HSAs

Administrative Aspects

There can be no doubt that the supervisors were handicapped in the performance of their tasks by certain conditions unique to rural Alaska. The tremendous distances over which the villages and the Aides were spread, coupled with the costs, uncertainties, and hazards of traveling--all affected the continuity and intensity of the field supervision that could be supplied to the Aides. These complexities were further compounded by the need to rely on written communication, which posed problems for some Aides either because of the level of their own education and comfort with written English or the slowness of mail delivery which was not geared to the urgency inherent in some situations about which the Aide might need to consult the coordinator. Such obstacles notwithstanding, the supervisors managed to maintain fairly close contact with the Aides and seized every conceivable opportunity to meet with them either in their home villages or in Bethel to which the Aides might have occasion to come for a variety of reasons.

Workload Management

While there seemed to be some individualization and differentiation among the clients, the supervisory comments forwarded to the Aides (on Coordinators' Report) in response to their case service action and other reports or memos did not suggest that the coordinators differentiated

similarly among Aides. For example, regardless of the geographic distribution of the villages under an Aide's auspices, or the size of the aided caseload for which he might be responsible in his group of villages, one supervisor from time to time advised on the HSAs' weekly reports: "Make 5-10 home visits a week." Whether the Aide served a single village with an aided caseload of 31, or three widely scattered villages with caseloads of six or eight or 23, or four villages with a total caseload of 49, the comments were almost identical. Particularly curious was how the coordinator could know from these reports how many home visits were being made by these Aides. One Aide, for instance, submitted almost no reports. Examination of those weekly reports[1] of activities performed that he had submitted typically contained under "Description of Activities Performed" a single statement like:

> I work around K--. talking to [Mrs. U] She is improving from drinking problems.

Then, under the heading of "Plans for next week," he promises that "My plans see my cliunt. What problems they have and what need the family."

When the Aides had been supplied with a list of aided cases in their villages, it became easier for the coordinators as well as the Aides to know when certain work would come due and whether or not the flow of this work was suitable to the needs of the situation, timely and accurate. It is important to bear in mind that there were no preconceived criteria about a reasonable workload for each HSA. Nor was it known whether the same criteria would necessarily apply to each Aide with the differences in numbers, sizes and distances of the villages in his workload.

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[1]These weekly reports were not developed in connection with the research activity but were examined in the evaluation process.

The written comments of the coordinators tended to be either a non-committal "O.K." with an occasional "good" (or in regard to one coordinator, "this is good case work"); or the coordinator's comments centered around a factor of eligibility for assistance or a computation of a grant. Their comfort with matters of eligibility determination, budgeting, and other procedures was evident. A qualitative difference, however, appeared in reference to community development activities. There was some evidence that one coordinator felt very much at home with regard to efforts centering on village projects that would strengthen the economic base of the village. There was practically no evidence of the other's relationship to this aspect of the HSA's job. With regard to neither was there any reference to marketing analysis, a fact the project proposal had specified for the coordinators.

Some Aides consulted the supervisors with regard to plans; some sought advice about anticipated problems. Others turned to the coordinator only when an inquiry about policy or procedure needed to be answered or when a concrete need or a specific problem was manifest for which the HSA had no immediate solution. These patterns of uses of the supervisors by the HSAs suggest that they were not particularly clear as to how they might use the services of the coordinator. It also suggests that there was no investment--at least one that paid off--in helping the Aides to understand in what ways the supervisors might be of help to them. It is possible, of course, that the limited use some Aides made of the coordinators in their supervisory capacity stemmed from other reasons; namely, an inherent distrust of the "gussaks" or an unwillingness to expose oneself as possibly less than adequate in meeting any situation that might arise. To some extent, it is likely that some HSAs would have made limited use of supervision, other than for emergencies, under <u>any</u> circumstances. But it was equally apparent

that some desired and would have benefited from supervision offered with awareness of the individual strengths and performance patterns of the Aides.

As was observed earlier, some HSAs expressed uncertainty about their own roles and whether they were "authorized" to carry out certain functions. In some of these situations, the coordinator appeared insufficiently conversant with the supervisory role or process to help these Aides. Neither had reached out to the other, with the consequence that some time was lost, as well as some quality of needed activity. It is conceivable that the failure to reach out to the Aides with interpretation of the supervisory role and the supervisor's readiness to work with the Aide around troubling matters stemmed from unawareness rather than supervisory indifference or lack of conscientiousness.

Delegation of Responsibility. An important ingredient in a sound supervisory working relationship is the delegation of responsibility within the framework of the tasks to be performed. It also reflects the judgment of the delegator: whether he is conversant with the supervisee's work patterns and judgments, the nature of his strengths, and those areas of his performance or behavior that require strengthening. Here a difference in the approach of the two coordinators was observable. The supervisor whose help was sought by Aides in planning activities, or for advice about anticipated problems, was also a supervisor whose interest and trust in them they felt. His respect was manifest in his solicitation of their views and the fact that he listened to them. They reciprocated by consulting him. On the other hand, the other coordinator openly was not as accepting of what the HSA could or would do. He was inclined to do for them--a form of control which either interfered with the Aides learning to perform certain tasks independently, denying them opportunity to develop their capacities, or alienated the Aides who possessed a strong sense of independence and self-reliance.

At the same time, the Aides relied upon him to guide them when a tense situation arose in the village involving the work of an Aide (complaint about the Aide by a villager, seeming unwillingness of a client to "stop the drinking" during which he became abusive to those around him). In such situations, it was not uncommon for the Aide to ask the coordinator to visit the village, the village council or the client (with the Aide), to "set things straight." On occasion when an Aide's behavior became troubling because he was drinking, the supervisor made valiant efforts to assist the Aide in altering this behavior. With respect to the support requested by the Aide in relation to his work, as well as with respect to the Aide's personal behavior that might be affecting his work, this supervisor was unfailing in his efforts to cope with the given situation.

Many examples appeared in the data about the supportiveness of both supervisors in their relationships with the Aides. In their different fashions, each was encouraging when the HSA was trying something new or endeavoring to improve performance. They "talked to" Aides whose drinking was interfering with their acceptance in the village or in the continuity of their work--in a manner highly reminiscent of the Aides' "talking to" the drinking client, that conveyed their interest in the Aide's well-being and their wish to help. And each supervisor carried an advocacy role with reference to various Aides: making requests in their behalf--for office space, for equipment, for leave to engage in subsistence fishing, for understanding elements in culture or education that might contribute to the manner in which a task was or was not carried out.

Educational Aspects

Each of the coordinators evidenced a teaching relationship with the Aides. Although they relied heavily upon the formal training undergone by the Aides to acquaint them with policies and procedures of DPW, and to

appraise them of existing resources for client use, the coordinators maintained a continuing responsibility for explaining eligibility, grant determination and other prescribed procedures to be followed by the Aides. These explanations also were in the form of "telling," whether verbally or in writing. Rarely, if ever, were they accompanied by interpretation of the reason for a policy or procedure--knowledge or understanding to provide a base for the Aide's learning and ability to adapt the learning from one situation to another.

Within narrowly demarked limits, the coordinators met implicit expectations that revolved around individualizing the strengths and capacities of the Human Services Aides as they performed their tasks. The coordinators were sensitive to some differences in personality and circumstances of the Aides that in one or another ways might or did affect their performance. They were sophisticated about agency regulations and sought compliance with these by those they supervised. Their knowledge of local customs and local resources was put to good use in assisting HSAs to utilize certain resources in case situations, for example, where parents were uneasy about permitting a child to leave the village for a distant school or where an older person's folk beliefs about the scurce and treatment of illness had to be acknowledged even as effort was made to connect the ill client with medical care in Bethel or in Anchorage.

Without in any way suggesting that the supervisors were anything less than conscientous and hard-working, the fulfillment of the supervisory educational function might be characterized largely as avoidance--not deliberate, to be sure. This finding stems from the absence of comment--in their written materials or interviews or observed interchanges with the supervisees--that might by any measure be labeled as educational or teaching or modeling. The

absence very often was just that: nothing. Sometimes there was a reassuring remark ("Your casework here seems good; do what you can to help him") unaccompanied by any hint of direction or steps to be taken. Certainly the reassurance in itself could serve a useful purpose with some Aides in that it confirmed for them that whatever they had done was satisfactory. On the other hand, for some it created anxiety by placing on them a responsibility and reliance for doing something which they either did not understand or felt incapable of handling without help.

In none of the more than 500 Coordinators Reports or memos read for trends and patterns was there an explicit or implied statement that, because of specified environmental or intrapersonal or other factors, singly or in combination, nothing more could be done by HSA or agency. While this undoubtedly would not have helped to bring the client's problem closer to resolution, it would have been supportive to the Aide to know that the failure was not his--and perhaps start him thinking along the lines of whether the kind of problem that led to this response (persistent excessive drinking, for example) would better be approached as a community problem.

In what respects a supervisor in a demonstration like RASS should undertake to help an employee through acquisition of knowledge and skill to develop capacity for performing his assigned duties is intimately related to the supervisor's perception of the purpose of the demonstration and how it was expected that the purpose would be accomplished. His clarity about goals and prescribed means to these goals govern the perception and understanding gained by the HSAs about goals and prescribed role responsibilities. That the intent of the demonstration was to bring services to Native villagers was well known and understood by the coordinators. That the services were to be available to aided and non-aided clients was not as readily understood

early in the life of the project as later was the case--and the mounting volume of non-aided clients about whom case service actions were reported testifies to the acceptance by the coordinators of this aspect of the demonstration. What comprised social services was less clear; this, however, was not unique to the RASS supervisors, as witness the growing general concern in many quarters about defining "services." In the area of community development activities, however, confusion built up in the Aides; much of this related to the kind of supervision available to them.

Over and over, in many contexts, the Aides questioned whether they were "authorized" to undertake community development activities. This, as well as the failure of a substantial number of Aides to venture at all into this arena of activity, was delineated in the preceding Chapter. One supervisor invested interest and activity in encouraging and consulting with some Aides around community projects, and this clearly was fruitful. But this investment did not include all those he supervised, and there was no indication of effort to help those who did nothing along these lines by examining the reasons for their restraint and taking measures to assist them to move in the direction of community activity. The second coordinator may have involved himself in this aspect of the Aides' work, but no evidence appeared to support such an idea. Indeed, the Aides in his group who conducted much community development work did so independently, without consulting him about their ideas or process. Neither coordinator displayed any evidence of fulfilling the project's expectation that they would "train" the Aides "in the marketing process".[1] Accordingly, they did not bring to the Aides through this route any

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[1] It might validly be speculated that there was some unreality do the expectation that expertise in the "marketing process" or "market analysis" could have been recruited in combination with the other qualities required of a supervisor in this aspect of RASS.

emphasis on the expectation that they would engage in community development.

The absence of any persistent effort to make clear to each Aide what was expected of him in community development--relating this to the villages in the Aides' respective workload--and how he might begin and then prosecute relevant tasks, was a gap in supervision keenly felt (and expressed) by three-fourths of the Human Services Aides. It should be noted that as a rule, in the polite Native custom, the individual Aides did not "point the finger" at the coordinators. Yet, the nature of a supervisory-supervisee relationship indicates that the first level of sanctions for the Aide must be the supervisor.

Essential ingredients for adequate functioning of people, whether in their personal lives or as employees, include trust and self-esteem. Both are quite dependent upon the esteem and trust that an individual feels emanating from others to him. This is no less true in a work relationship than in other kinds of relationships. One's sense of adequacy and competence and, therefore, of job satisfaction influence the quality of interest and of effort brought to the doing of the job. In many ways the especially strong need of the Native staff to be viewed as adequate and competent was articulated--a need certainly shared by most people including Natives. To more sophisticated supervisors this would have been a signal for certain supervisory behavior. It would have been recognized as a part of the normal supervisory function to encourage and support the supervisee realistically as he carried out his assignments, to regard him and treat him as a mature and responsible person interested in his role as a helping person and desirous of increasing the knowledge and skill that are important to such work.

On many occasions, the evidence shows, such encouragement and support were supplied, albeit apparently on an intuitive basis rather than a deliberate reaction to a given situation. There was an implied expectation that the

Aide knew what to do; yet generally he was not given a "handle" to take hold of so that he could proceed to justify the expectation of the supervisor and gain a feeling of accomplishment that would encourage him to go on to attempt other tasks.

Nor did the supervisory response or reactive behavior necessarily acknowledge the capacity of the Aide to cope in a mature way with the problem confronting him. For example, a number of times, with or without the Aides's invitation, the coordinator accompanied an Aide on a visit to a household with problems difficult for the Aide to handle. Unwittingly, despite the good intentions (often hazardous words!), this action of doing for the Aide what he seemingly could not do himself in effect negated the expectation that the Aide could tackle a difficult task. Apparently, according to information volunteered or implied in interviews, no consideration was given in most instances to the prospect of helping the Aide think through (1) what elements were involved in a given situation, (2) what action or problem-solving alternatives (whether good or not, whether possible or not) should be taken into account, (3) how he could proceed to try out the alternative approach of choice, and (4) to assess its efficacy in this situation and its applicability to others.

Such learning from doing, and having both the systematic thinking and doing experiences, is valuable in the armamentary of the human services worker who must consider and act in various situations without the benefit of a telephone or other communication device to connect him quickly with supervisory help. It is regrettable that the time the coordinator spent with the Aides in Bethel or in their respective villages (when the joint visits were made) was not devoted to such educational approaches that would have carryover import

for the Aide. The danger signals were clear to the supervisors, it seems certain, for they were sensitive to the white-Native distrust prevalent among villagers. But they did not apply this knowledge to themselves--possibly because they were not prepared to assess behavior for the purpose of coping with it; or equally likely, they were not aware of alternative ways to help the troubled supervisee. The outcomes of such joint visiting were indicated by Aides when they volunteered descriptions of visits in which the client remained silent until the "gussak" had departed and the Native Aide and client were alone.

It is important to note that the tone and content of the responses of one coordinator on memos to HSAs underwent some change by the end of July, 1970. Whereas previously his remarks fell into a pattern of reporting budget changes or repeating briefly what the Aide had done ("Explained change of status to client on welfare", or "Wrote letter to BIA for return of children") or a simple "OK", they now asked questions that implied the Aide already had in mind what the question suggested and that the supervisor was merely requesting some reporting or accounting. For example, to an Aide whose reported work output seemed remarkably small except for prescribed tasks, he wrote: "Have you made home visits to all your clients within the past month --on budgeting but also on hearing their general needs?" To another Aide with limited production whose weekly report stipulated in connection with the "plans for next week" that "I may make visits," he wrote, "Can you visit each of your clients to explain the change in budgets?" Examination of the reports of these two Aides for the next two months showed that they did indeed increase the number of their home visits, that these focused on interpretation of budget changes, and that in several situations family problems came to light to which the Aides could address themselves as helping persons.

Just how important to the Aide it is to have a precise idea of what to visit for (instead of simply being advised to "set up 5 or 10 regular home visits a week") was manifest in the fact that when the Aides ranked their various tasks by degrees of hardness, "friendly visiting" was not universally found to be simple, friendly and gregarious though the Natives be.

What accounted for this change? The coordinator, who had no experience or academic preparation for supervision, had been granted the opportunity to attend a week-long seminar on supervision at the University of Washington School of Social Work in Seattle. There was immediate evidence that he was putting into effect some of his learnings from this experience and that the impact had reached and influenced several Aides.

Outcomes

The analysis disclosed that much of the positive achievements of the Human Services Aides in working with families as well as in community development was the result of their self-initiated efforts and ingenuity. Except for the initial months of organization, the supervisory supports were minimal--and in some instances almost non-existent. It is clear that one of the major weaknesses in the RASS demonstration was the quality of direct supervision which was available to the Aides. At the same time, cognizance must be taken of the fact that to recruit trained experienced personnel for such positions in these remote areas is an exceedingly difficult task. It undoubtedly was fortunate that the project could begin with supervisors who possessed certain important qualities such as knowledge about the area, readiness to travel under adverse conditions, and ability to cope with a variety of discomforts. These qualities were of value in recruitment and early developmental aspects of the demonstration. It was regrettable that

they did not have other qualities fundamental for optimizing the effectiveness of the Aides' work--qualities of professional knowledge and skill requisite to effective functioning by persons endeavoring to extend human services with little preparation for doing so. In a number of ways elucidated above, the supervisors were supportive and useful to the Aides and the project. There is no doubt, nevertheless, that the overall effectiveness of the performance by the Aides and the acceptance of the total RASS Project and endeavors in the villages would have been greatly enhanced by the accessibility of skills essential for the modeling or direct supervisory tasks required in the demonstration.

Distance and communication factors again were of importance in assessing the level of effectiveness achieved. Unlike other geographically distributed communities, the space and communication facilities were such that the administrative personnel in the RASS demonstration could not readily narrow the gaps left by the supervisors' qualifications. Nor did they lend themselves to concentrated supervision by administrative personnel that could have strengthened the positive qualities which both coordinators possessed. Although certain problems arose in relation to the level and quantity of administrative supports available to the Aides in their daily tasks, at every point when the administration became aware of particular need for help that was administratively possible it was provided. Clearly evident was an upward curve, as the project proceeded, with respect to administrative contributions and interests in the performance of the Aides and the necessity for helping them in one way or another to overcome certain barriers to their continued productive performance. The continuing need of the Native staff to feel the persistent interest of the administration was evident. This points to the importance of developing addi-

tional ways of maintaining regular contact with them so that they do not feel isolated; and it also points to the importance of continuing staff development as an administrative tool in maintaining and developing the level of the contribution by the Human Services Aides.

3

Coordination

> More and more people in villages work there who represent different organizations and do different services. We have human services aides, medical aides, teacher's aides, sanitation agents, probation aides, schoolteachers--it looks like some villages will soon have more "experts" and "agencies" in them at any one time than there are Natives living in the villages. Already they are getting in each other's hair.[1]

How much exaggeration and/or fact was included in this comment was not appraised. But it echoes some comments contained in the RASS Project proposal to support "coordination" as an appropriate project goal.

Form the analysis of the data available with regard to the coordination goal of the RASS Project, it was found that the demonstration seemingly made the least progress in moving towards this goal.[2] In part this was due to the fact that reappeared in almost every phase of the evaluative research; namely, that coordination in planning and service-delivery (whether individual case actions or community actions) had to be addressed to the most elementary level of coordination aiming toward problem-solving rather than social problem prevention. In part the slow progress also was a function of time. In part it resulted from the manner in which the coordination goal was presented in

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[1] Interview July 28, 1969 with BIA school principal in Kuskokwim River village.

[2] Some expectations regarding coordination are noted in Chapter I, this report.

the project proposal--without clear definition of how it might be defined or perceived. And in part there was less progress than might have been expected because of the limited amount of skill in community organization method available to the demonstration at its outset.

It is barely possible to observe in the data an immediate cause-effect relationship with respect to coordination activities. The very success of an undertaking can best be viewed retrospectively, after the lapse of a reasonable amount of time to permit determination that the strategies led to more than a transitory facade of cooperation and actually resulted in coordination of activities, planning and/or programs. The lateness of the formal efforts to pursue coordination activities--the Governor's Policy Advisory Committee, for example--precludes full assessment of the effectiveness of such undertakings in the long run. Examination of the brief life of that committee, however, does point to the potential of this device as a useful tool for coordination as well as for closing the gap between the villagers and DPW. The eagerness of the Advisory Committee members, the zeal with which they addressed themselves to the tasks at hand, and the manner in which they supported their recommendations--these point to such a committee as a viable mechanism, depending in large measure on the availability of competent staffing for the committee.

Not all of the committees and other coordinating devices proposed in the project prospectus were created. Nor does it seem, in light of the total staffing and activities pattern of RASS as revealed in the several chapters preceding, that the creation of so many committees was practical. For example, the course and actions of the Governor's Policy Advisory Committee strongly suggest that such a committee would have been unaccepting of another committee in the Bethel area focusing upon the operations and community relations of the RASS Program and personnel. Rather, it seems more likely that an enlarged

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committee with representation from various villages and Bethel might have been a productive method for providing both policy consultation and inter-agency coordination. But this would necessitate an advisory committee sufficiently large to permit the formation of a technical sub-committee, one that might include representatives of agencies serving the same area snd addressing their joint efforts to developing ways of improving coordination of their services and programs.

The RASS Project undoubtedly suffered from some of the same kinds of suspicious and competitive attitudes to be found in many agencies where a demonstration is in process with separate staff and at a distance from the center of operations. The zealous guarding of project goals and activities by project personnel tends to alienate some staff and the balance of an agency's program unless particular caution is taken to keep the agency personnel, especially at all administrative levels, positively involved and identified with the objectives of the demonstration. This was an early failure of RASS, which later administrative personnel undertook to correct; they succeeded to a considerable degree in doing so. There were positive outcomes as far as intra-agency cooperation and coordination are concerned; they were only slow to be attained because of already mentioned problems in the beginnings of the project.

In summary, it was found that there was less achievement in attaining the goals of coordination initially ascribed to the project than in any other aspect of RASS. Perhaps if the goal had been described differently than "coordination," the level of success might have seemed greater. There was cooperation--with the Bethel District Office, with certain agencies serving the Bethel area--particularly the schools and the U.S. Public Health Service. There was collaboration, particularly at some of the village levels in the form of

cooperative undertakings which involved not only RASS and DPW but also other organizations such as housing. There was control in places where this needed to be assumed--such as the integration of the Food Stamp program into the HSA function, the reassertion in some villages of the importance of child welfare services being centralized at the village level in the HSA in order to assure more expedient and appropriate decision-making and action with regard to placement of children outside the family home.

Coordination as such was influenced by the general lack of understanding at the village and Bethel RASS level of what is involved in such a process. What accomplishments occurred were the consequences of intuitive action that "seemed right" to the Aide and/or the coordinator. Three basic ingredients for effective coordination were conspicuously absent at the village and Bethel levels: sufficient manpower with competence in coordination knowledge and skills, time, and availability of data on which to proceed. For as was discussed earlier, the supervisory assessment of facts about caseload trends, problems, needs, and utilization of existing resources was not viewed by supervisory personnel as part of their function and therefore did not constitute a tool of importance in initiating and following through with steps leading to coordination. It is from this level that a sound foundation would have to be built to achieve coordination undertaken at any level in the RASS and/or DPW heirarchy, whether vertical or horizontal in scope and direction.

And the beginnings must rest with the administrative levels of the Division of Public Welfare.

CHAPTER

V

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

> I would like to hear more about how best to deal with the resentful attitude toward the HSA from our fellow villagers and in some cases from our clients....What would a trained social worker do in a case where the client is abusing the money granted to him by drinking and gambling, whether it be money or property....

A year and a half after his recruitment as a Human Services Aide in the RASS Project, HSA 10 thus formalized in a letter some of his concerns--shared by other Aides--about his learning needs. Like the other eighteen Aides, following recruitment he had participated in the three segments of intensive training comprising the academic and on-the-job phases. He had been supervised by one of the two project coordinators stationed in Bethel, and he had engaged in several staff development activities that were part of the demonstration project's continuing training efforts. He was now about to take part in the last group sessions of RASS as a demonstration and training project. Thereafter he would be an employee of the State Division of Public Welfare, his assignment to provide aid and services to individuals and families in his assigned rural villages, and to engage in community development activities in these villages.

By what process had he been recruited into RASS? What was the training supplied him? And what are the implications for future recruitment and training of the experiences of HSA 10 and his eighteen Native colleagues in recruitment, training and staff development activities?

This chapter presents some of the data bearing on the recruitment and training of the Human Services Aides.

Recruitment

The timing as well as some of the learnings derived from the first recruitment experience (Group K) and applied to the second recruitment experience (Group Y) undoubtedly account in part for certain differences in the recruitment processes and outcomes. Pressure of time was a notable element in the recruitment to Group K: many village men were about to depart for National Guard encampment,[1] and less time appears to have been available between the initial distribution of recruiting information and the actual selection process. Information was not as widely disseminated among the villagers about the new work opportunity as was anticipated.

Moreover, there is reason to believe that the village council leaders, to whom the information naturally was first directed, were selective about those to whose attention they brought the information: relatives, welfare agents, village council officials--not infrequently the triple role of a single person. Also, higher educational qualifications were established for entrance into Group K than for entrance into Group Y. The coordinators and others interviewed speculated that the difference in educational expectations at entrance eliminated certain desirable prospective HSAs who possessed qualities important to functioning in the HSA role but lacked the specified eighth grade achievement or the permissible year-for-year substitution of experience for education. Yet a similar observation was made by respondents

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[1]Analysis of the characteristics of the HSAs in the RASS Project showed that ten of the seventeen men had National Guard or other military experience. Although no data were gathered concerning the proportion of villagers active in National Guard--and, therefore, apt to be absent from the villages during the recruitment period--there was reason to believe that more than a few were thus involved.

with regard to Group Y, to whom the floor of a fifth grade education was supplied; namely, that the emphasis placed by the testing process on arithmetic served to weed out "good" prospects from both groups.

Despite the differing educational requirements,[1] the educational achievements of more than half of Group Y was eighth grade or above, while this was true for less than a third of Group K. Was this difference a consequence of the longer period available for recruitment and the wider dissemination of information about the demonstration's job openings? Members of Group Y learned about the program through their official positions as president or other officer or member of a village council; others had seen bulletins or newspaper announcements. However, it is more likely that the higher educational levels among the Group Y Aides stemmed from the greater emphasis among many of the Group Y villages on education.

The general impression was voiced by Bethel RASS personnel and early RASS project directors that the members of Group Y on the whole appeared to be more sophisticated than was true of Group K Aides. This did not hold up on examination of the subsequent experiences in RASS. The impression may have obtained from the fact that the level of fluency in English among some of the Group K Aides was considerably lower than that of almost any of the Group Y Aides. The impression may also have derived from the fact that more of the recruits to Group Y had themselves sought out the opportunity to file for the job; they possessed related experience which made them feel that the position of Aide was "in my line." This particularly was remarked by those with experience as welfare fee agent, city clerk, medical aide, or magistrate. Those affiliated with village councils also reported related experiences:

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[1]See Table 1 in Chapter I for characteristics of HSAs.

for the last several years, the Bureau of Indian Affairs had delegated to the village councils the administration of general assistance within certain villages.

Some concerns were expressed by Aides, other RASS personnel, and villagers with regard to the selection process. Presumably, with reference to each group, interviews were arranged in each village immediately following the scoring of the written test, a task performed fairly quickly. It was thus readily apparent to any curious observer in the village just who had failed or passed the written test; those who had failed were not interviewed. This openness may not have been avoided easily but, given the Eskimo's high regard for privacy, this is an element that conceivably added some fuel to the smoldering distrust to be overcome by the HSAs and others--"gussaks"--connected with DPW and the Division of Personnel of the State Agency.

Constantly in the foreground of assessment of the effectiveness of the work of human services aides was the level of literacy of the individual Aide and his ability to verbalize. In several instances, relative unfamiliarity with written English undoubtedly made it difficult for the particular Aide not only to report the nature and scope of his actitities, but to make appropriate referrals on behalf of the client, to engage in community activities involving written inquiries or proposals, or to secure from supervisory personnel the kind of assistance he might require to more effectively fulfill his responsibilities. The question also might be raised about the relative inarticulateness of certain Aides in a working role that depends so heavily on verbal communication. Both of these areas warrant closer examination in terms of appraisal at the point of selecting personnel for such positions.

Experiences of and with Aides in several other respects also suggest the importance of taking into account in recruitment and selection the

factors of health, age, and cultural perceptions of the rural village women. Although it was anticipated that persons selected for HSA positions would have "good health and ability to pass pre-employment physical," at least two Aides had uncorrected hearing problems which undoubtedly held significance for the prosecution of their tasks. This is not to say that the hard-of-hearing person should not be selected but, rather, that every effort should be made to assure the probability that he can correct the hearing difficulty so that he can communicate adequately with clients and others in his villages.

Age arose as an occasional problem in two ways. One was with regard to the cultural attitudes about age that place some stress on the younger Aide having occasion to work with someone his senior who adheres to the customary role of the older Native as the wise esteemed elder who advises but is not advised. In this respect, the element of age differential needs attention in training and staff development rather than in the recruitment and selection process. However, consideration of an older person for entering employment does require appraisal to ascertain whether the age factor is associated with a reduced readiness to learn and apply new concepts and helping ways. This suggests that the examination process should be geared to incorporate such appraisal.

In one other respect, qualities and qualifications for positions as HSAs justify special attention. The volume and kind of performance by the two women Human Services Aides in remote villages was in sharp contrast to the freedom and performance of the Bethel woman Aide as well as with most of the other Aides in the villages. This poses a question as to whether (especially in light of mandatory non-discrimination employment policies with respect to women) there is need by DPW staff and personnel experts to assess the circumstances that may circumscribe the freedom and manner with which women

villagers can carry out certain HSA functions and responsibilities--particularly those connected with community development.

In one other area pertaining to recruitment and selection the work of the Aides in the villages encountered some problems centering around them with which they had to cope, and which they had not precipitated directly. It is evident that special cautions have to be exercised in planning recruitment and employee selection measures that will serve to keep to a minimum the kinds of hostile feelings that are engendered among the villagers, hostile feelings that find as their target the villager who has successfully competed for one of the few--sometimes the single--paid full-time job in the village. In certain villages, the angry behavior has interfered to some extent with the acceptance by the villagers of the HSA in his official role, thereby impeding both his course and his effectiveness. It is recognized that such disgruntlement will exist irrespective of the care taken by the recruiters, and that some responsibility must necessarily fall to the training and supervisory personnel to help new employees cope with these kinds of feelings to the extent that they affect the work to be done.

2

Training

The project proposal envisioned a dual training approach. One was to focus on the newly recruited Human Services Aides, and the other was to be in-service training supplied the Bethel District Office personnel to acquaint them with the goals, directives, methods and techniques of the RASS Project. Changes in district personnel as well as in project directorship resulted in the latter expectation being abandoned as a concurrent formalized activity. The training program for the Aides also underwent a few changes as it proceeded, but essentially it was as had been planned at the outset.

As was previously described, a nine-month training program was developed, made up of three separate phases. The first was seen as an academic period of three months' duration, conducted in Bethel by personnel supplied by the Anchorage Community College. The Group K HSAs were the first to go through this academic period. While Group K entered the second training phase--four months of "a closely supervised...period of on-the-job training back in their own village" that would follow "the theoretical training," the Group Y Aides undertook the three months of academic training in Bethel. Following the four months of supervised work in the villages, each group had a two months' period of intensive academic training for which they went to Anchorage, first Group K, then Group Y.

The use of Anchorage as the center of the third phase of training was a deviation from the original plan. Examination of the first academic training experience had suggested the advisability of exposing the Aides to a larger community where more resources would be available both for teaching and observation purposes. Moreover, some of the problems that accrued to the first training phase because of the distance of this training operation from the locus of supervision for the training (the Anchorage Community College) could possibly be reduced, if not eliminated, by the change in location.

Some modification also took place with respect to the delegation of responsibility for the conduct of the training. The initial format and content of the curriculum were essentially developed by the Project Director who had moved into that position from the RASS training supervisor position. At the time he left the RASS Project, a new training supervisor had not yet been appointed, nor was there a Project Director for a period of several months. As a result there was minimal supervision of the content and direction of the training. In anticipation of the last phase of the formal training to be

presented in Anchorage, conferences and consultations were conducted to alter the format and curriculum in order to take into account the learnings from the first training experience and to place more firmly with the Anchorage Community College the responsibilities for the training as contracted. These conferences included the new Project Director, the Chief Staff Development Supervisor, and the representative of the Anchorage Community College,who worked together on this task.

In contrast, then, to the first formal training phase that had initiated the HSAs into their work, the later academic training received more surveillance and investment from the Anchorage Community College staff; and RASS Project administrative personnel took considerable responsibility for monitoring the quality and coverage of the training. Aside from other factors that influenced the productivity of this phase of the training (such as the greater readiness of many Aides to incorporate the learnings), there were positive results from the continuity and interest of the RASS directorship, as well as the placement of this training segment in the immediate proximity of the College. While a number of positives were incorporated in, and resulted from, this part of the training, some problems identified earlier remained unresolved, and some gaps persisted.

Locus of Training

Bethel had been selected as the location of the first training phase in part because Bethel was the center of activity for the RASS territory, and in part because it was presumed that the Aides would be fairly familier with this community and have some sense of comfort in being there. The Aides were provided with group housing and, because it was also expected that their training would involve some evening sessions, they were instructed not to bring their families to Bethel.

There were mixed reactions on the part of Aides and other RASS personnel about the reasons for these housing and time arrangements. Perceptions as well as attitudes varied. Some thought that long unstructured or unsupervised evenings would create or exacerbate emotional or social problems experienced by the Aides. Some respondents attributed the arrangements to the need to be sure that HSAs, as State employees, worked the seven and a half hours daily expected of them. Others saw the emphasis on daily hours of work as a device for helping the Aide establish regularity in work patterns, and the evening schedule as advisable because of the dearth of recreational facilities in Bethel. Although some Aides deplored the housing arrangements and others objected to the enforced closeness and the "supervision," nearly all took exception to the evening class periods. The reasons varied: the instructional day was too long, there was not enough time to relax over the dinner period, the after-dinner sessions induced drowsiness, there was insufficient time in which the Aide could study or otherwise prepare for class or field sessions. Indeed, time for independent study and individual preparation, with adequate library and other resources provided, appeared not to be included in the daily schedule.

The Anchorage training period endeavored to overcome some of the dissatisfactions that had been voiced about the Bethel arrangement. As in Bethel, the HSAs were provided common housing (with separate arrangements for the women) and field observation-classroom training experiences that would involve some evening as well as daytime activities. And, as in Bethel, the Aides were not to be accompanied to Anchorage by their families. But unlike the Bethel arrangements, those in Anchorage included the services of an assistant to the Anchorage College Supervisor of Special Programs (who carried the RASS Project training responsibilities for the College), the

assistant being a Native who could relate to the HSAs in a variety of ways not as possible for a non-Native. His services were varied and included housing arrangements, transportation arrangements, translations, etc.

The general reactions to the Anchorage living plan were more positive. In part this may have been due to the greater freedom of movement permitted the Aides, as well as to the greater degree of comfort and security with regard to being HSAs in a training program about which they now had the familiarity obtained from the preceding five months with the project and the staff. Certainly there was a marked affirmative reaction to visiting agencies and community facilities for the learning they provided about what they offered, what might be done, by whom. There was some satisfaction with seeing agencies, thereby being better equipped to describe them to villagers who might have need of them for some reason.

The distance from home villages, however, constituted some problem from the standpoint of time: total time away from home and length of the training day which, in part, was associated with avoidance of blocks of unscheduled time that might be used adversely. The problems that seemed to be connected with distance and timing suggest the advisability of considering some other spacing of the training activity when future recruitment efforts are contemplated that would be followed by congregate formal academic training activities. If, for example, transportation factors permit, an overall training plan might include five or six weeks in Bethel (or other place central to the area in which HSAs would be stationed); four months in the villages as in the current design, but with periodic one- or two-day sessions each month; and a final month in Anchorage or other large center, like Fairbanks.

For certain Aides, the distance from home and/or the stay in the large city was troubling, and was evidenced in personal behavior. But for most of

the Aides, the locale of the training--Anchorage--held special values and opportunities. They were able to use their stay in this city not only for the completion of the training phase, but also to contact or follow up with persons or resources about specific village situations--persons who otherwise would have remained unreal and, therefore, seemingly not approachable.

Content Coverage and Gaps

There was marked progress observable in the HSAs' identification with the purposes and program of DPW as well as RASS following the Anchorage training period. However, several of the Aides found it easier to define their role by exclusion, for example, by insisting that they were not fee agents, or were not health aides, or were different from.... This took on import in relation to the extent to which some Aides reached out within their own villages—even to the village council--to describe or clarify their functions as preliminary to engaging in service-delivery or community development activities. The difficulties these Aides felt in offering a positive description of what they were rather than what they were not undoubtedly had some effect on their ability to instill in others confidence that the HSA has the readiness and competence to fulfill a helping role. This situation, more true in Group K than Y, arose in both groups.

The training succeeded in enlarging perceptions of many Aides about needs in the villages, especially the common human needs such as the child's need of him family for his growth and development, and the importance of working with the family. There was some stimulation to work for the establishment of resources, even to the extent of villages banding together to organize a needed resource. Some gained new knowledge or insights about subjects of particular interest to them as individuals as well as helping persons: about alcoholism, about nutrition in children, about child development

or foster home development. Yet, despite the wide coverage of subject matter and the inclusion of topics previously perceived by HSAs as desirable and/or necessary, they came to the end of the academic phase in many instances still feeling a need for information about such matters as how to involve parents in community-wide programs of service to teenagers and younger children, how to form and productively hold groups of young people, how to help parents assume parental responsibilities, how to motivate villagers toward self-improvement, how to procure a Vista or other teacher, and about other specific measures to attain a concrete goal.

Examination of the Bethel training experience had disclosed an omission of importance to the overall objectives of the RASS Project. Although the RASS Project was conceived with a target population broader than the segment receiving or asking for public assistance, the non-recipient generally had been excluded from consideration--possibly by fortuity rather than by design. The heavy emphasis of the first training stage classroom work had been on meeting relief needs and on the methods--and, particularly, the arithmetic--connected with this task. There is no doubt of the necessity for such learning; nor is there any doubt that it was easier for the Aides to learn specific procedures. Some attention was directed toward meeting needs of non-recipients of public assistance when the Aides entered the Anchorage phase of training, and the success of this area in the training is manifest in the steady increase in the number of non-aided clients reported on case service action forms.

Generally the HSAs had a good grasp of the fact that they were expected to learn how to understand and solve problems. They had anticipated that "outside knowledge" would accelerate, extend, and maximize their potential to help individuals as well as the whole community. Among the learnings both

that they reported during the three rounds of interviews and that appeared in the analysis of other data were these:

(1) Despite their lifelong experiences with life and behavior in the respective villages, the Aides were surprised at what they observed in their villages on their return from their respective training periods in "the city." For example,

(a) The HSAs encountered less neglect than they had anticipated although they did discern considerable "careless mistreatment" of children;

(b) Village parents have aspirations for their children and tend to push them.

(2) "Most" recipients in the village had not been fully budgeted for the amounts they needed and could be granted, and the Aides had learned how to raise questions about need and use the appropriate procedures for ascertaining that the right amount of aid was made available.

(3) Some Aides had developed a pattern for knowing what to do and say, an orderly process for gaining some understanding, and an attitude (designated as "friendly") helpful to them in reaching the clients.

(4) Even while the Aides described placing of children on the basis of planning, or consciously using information about resources and about parental rights to general assistance, to Food Stamps, to fair hearings, there was a tendency to ascribe good results of the HSA activities to "good luck."

(5) There were indications that Aides were learning to recognize problems ("learning how the problem is") almost as soon as they returned from the first training period in Bethel. They were able to move in a fairly systematic way toward dealing with these problems on an individual basis, with an avoidance of possible stereotyping. Of particular significance is discernible

growth on the part of some Aides in moving from the handling only of concrete visible problems, to recognizing the presence of unexpressed problems, and sensitively embarking on a plan for dealing with feelings feelings toward problem resolution.

(6) Considerable use was increasingly made of observation and awareness: one man had remarked about his return to the village from the Bethel training to discover that he could talk more easily when he grasped the fact that people wanted help even though they might be reluctant to request it in the face of the accepted ideal of a person, especially of a man, as strong and independent.

(7) Some HSAs used the structure and timing of interviews to move toward specific goals, and despite reiterated uneasiness and discomfort about discussing "private and personal" matters such as birth control, family relationships, money matters, and others, the Aides offered examples of work undertaken that included helping a separated family to reunite by leading the parents into consideration of alternate outcomes for their children, helping families to consider priorities on summer earnings, or to initiate steps to legalize informal adoptions.

(8) The uneasiness noted above began to be allayed for some Aides who, on following up on a few of their initial helping efforts, found the families were doing well. These Aides were cognizant of their own increasing ability to enter into discussion of problems without "embarrassment" and were finding good response to expressions of interest and concern conveyed "Eskimo-to-Eskimo."

By the time the nine months of training had been concluded, certain gaps in learning were still present. Although more true of some Aides than of others, to greater or lesser degree these gaps were relevant to nearly all of

the Aides. They can be generally categorized in two groups: competence based on a learned skill, and informational.

With respect to the former, gaps appeared to exist in relation to how to exercise initiative, what specific steps--and how--should be taken in reaching out to villagers, village councils, non-villagers, and other organizations. Aides were troubled about how to handle feelings and reactions of friends and relatives with whose wishes they could not comply because they were not congruent with agency policy and what might be available with regard to size of grant. They found difficulty in being a target of the anger and frustration of peers in the village because of decisions made in Bethel or Juneau or elsewhere. There were gaps in learning with regard both to community development activities and collaborative relationships with other organizations serving the same villages. Although information about resources that might be available for help to clients and/or villages was repeatedly cited as an "information need," it was clear that the need actually was for a combination of the skill and the knowledge. For example, what does one need to know about alcoholism and behavior in order to be able to make some choices about approaches for coping with the intoxicated individual or the alcoholic who neglects or abuses family members? At what point, then, and with what knowledge and skill, might a referral be made to a possible helping resource?

It was expected that the overall appraisal of the gains and gaps related to the learning of the two respective groups of Human Services Aides would be made in conjunction with the learning achievements accruing from the continuing staff development activities in the RASS program for which a staff training supervisor would have responsibility, and the continuing staff development of activities which the Human Services Aides' supervisor would be expected to

supply. Some areas were in fact the subject of the staff training supervisor's attention. However, several factors precluded full implementation of these expectations: the limited quality of supervision available, the brevity of the training supervisor's connection with the project, the limited span of time available for the total demonstration, and the transportation and communication barriers.

RASS Training Supervisor

Beyond the nine months of training with which each Aide was involved (with the exception of the one Aide who replaced a "dropout" and had two months less of training in the Bethel phase), staff development responsibilities were divided among the training supervisor assigned to the project in Bethel and located there for a period of nine months, the coordinators serving as supervisors for the HSAs, and certain administrative personnel.

With the appointment of a Bethel-based RASS Training Supervisor, certain staff development needs of the Aides began to receive the attention unfortunately lacking too long. Various aids were developed for the help of the HSAs in carrying out some tasks and giving careful thought to what was involved in others. For example, a sample one-page process record was developed and distributed, accompanied with a clear concise statement about purposes for such a recording. Occasionally, in the absence of a coordinator (on vacation or other leave) the training supervisor responded to the Aide's Report of Case Service Action by offering an explanation or suggestion. These written documents--memos, supervisory reports, as well as monthly reports of the training supervisor's activities and plans--also made some contribution to the coordinators by modeling some ways of approaching the educational function in relation to the supervisory role. On the whole, there appeared to be a collaborative relationship between the training

supervisor and the respective coordinators with regard to staff development. The overlapping of functions that might under other circumstances have created more stressful problems among the Bethel RASS Aides and training personnel or confusion among the Aides was not disadvantageous to the RASS purposes, for the content knowledge of this Bethel staff was complementary.

An early task undertaken by the training supervisor was an examination of the work the Aides were performing and some assessment of their apparent staff development needs. Based on this assessment and with the agreement of the coordinators and Project Director, certain formal staff development activities were planned and implemented. These included training sessions on foster care for children, with Aides going to Bethel for small group sessions, mixing Group Y and Group K Aides. There were follow-up contacts with the Aides to help them consolidate the learning obtained in these sessions. Subsequent Case Service Action Reports showed the nature of the expanded knowledge and skill of certain Aides who put this learning to work in coping with problems involving child placement, abuse, or adoption. Similarly, when it was decided that the interests of clients would be better served--and the time of the HSAs better used--by placing the Food Stamp function with some of the Aides, a careful plan for instruction in the background, goals, and use of Food Stamps was given the Aides. Again, the reports and memoranda from the Aides reflected this teaching.

The responsiveness reflected in the reports of some of the Aides not only was a tribute to the care and effectiveness with which these training sessions were planned and operated. Here also was evidence of the kind of situation which lends itself to the optimal learning of the Aide--an educational experience that he can put to practical use. These were tangible programs involving action for a specific identifiable encompassable purpose

that could be understood by the Aide and explained readily (usually) to the client and village. The teaching was done in very small groups, facilitating interaction and a pacing of the communication at a rate best absorbed by the participants in light of their respective levels of language use and comprehension.

3

Impact of Recruitment, Training and Staff Development on Performance Effectiveness

The effectiveness of the RASS demonstration was intimately related to the quality and manner of the recruitment and selection of the Aides. Given the qualifications and manifest capabilities of the Aides, the formal training period afforded them certain skills that enabled them to carry out objective concrete tasks, mostly classified as single objective services (see Chapter III). It did not equip them to deal with behavioral problems requiring any diagnostic assessment and follow-through; nor did it equip them to undertake the community development aspects of their role. The supervisory staff development activities reinforced the limited learning about procedures and certain policies that characterized the first formal training period. It did little more, although there was some evidence that one supervisor made some contribution with respect to community development. Probably one of the weakest areas of the total RASS Project, however, was the educational and staff development function of the coordinators, which did not live up to the promise of the project proposal.

Other staff development activities added to the knowledge and skill of some of the Aides. Certain HSAs, however, showed little progress beyond their achievements in the first academic training phase, although this may

not be a consequence of the training and staff development but of other, more personal, factors.

Some beginning, though not extensive, was made in helping HSAs to raise the level of their school achievement so that they could improve their work performance as well as their self-image, equipping themselves to work in a way satisfying to them and to the agency and villages.

On the whole, it was found that with such training and staff development as was available, some Aides made decided progress. In the closing series of research interviews it became eminently clear, for example, that although some of the Aides had taken the position originally because it was a full time paying job and this took precedence over motivation to be helping persons, their priorities had altered somewhat. The interest and motivation in providing human services had risen sharply—a response both to the doing of the job and the self-confidence they were acquiring through the combination of being on the job and having some contribution from the training and staff development.

CHAPTER

VI

EFFECTS AND EFFECTIVENESS: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

How will you know....?

The Rural Areas Social Services Project assayed its demonstration and training program with several objectives subsumed under two major goals: to deliver social services to meet the social and economic needs of individuals and families in Native villages in Southwestern rural Alaska; and to undertake community development actions intended to strengthen the economic and social base of the respective villages, thereby moving toward reduction of pervasive social problems. These direct service and community development actions were to be carried out by Natives recruited, trained, and supervised in the conduct of these activities who would be provided certain administrative supports in pursuit of the primary goals. In addition to testing the efficacy of such recruitment, training, supervision, and administrative supports, the project was to engage in coordination activities intended to support services by developing joint action in resource development and utilization.

The intents and objectives of the RASS demonstration were set forth in the proposal from the Alaska Division of Public Welfare, funded by the Social and Rehabilitation Service of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare with Section 1115 funds in accordance with the Social Security Act. Effectiveness of this demonstration was to be determined by the evaluative research.

The RASS demonstration began in December, 1968 with nineteen Human Services Aides (ten from Kuskokwim River villages and nine from Yukon River villages) and two supervisors (one Project Coordinator for the Kuskokwim Aides and one for the Yukon Aides) as front-line personnel. The evaluative research began the following July, observing and analyzing the actions and activities of the project until its termination as a demonstration in December, 1970. At that time the Alaska Division of Public Welfare incorporated the nineteen Aide positions and two supervisory positions into its regular operations. The Aides continue their work in the villages under the direction of the District Representative in the Bethel office of the Division of Public Welfare.

The preceding chapters described the RASS objectives, the research design and analytic framework, and highlights of the analysis of data in the five evaluation areas to which the research was addressed. In those chapters some assessment was offered of elements that influenced the course and achievements of the demonstration as a whole, impeding or impelling its progress, and whether the several objectives of the demonstration were achieved.

This chapter highlights evaluative research findings with particular import for the continued delivery of direct and community services in rural areas by Native personnel trained on the job. Without enumerating--much less discussing--the findings of effectiveness in relation to the aims of each particular phase of the demonstration examined, this chapter will present the composite of findings of effectiveness and their implications for program demonstration and operation. It will focus on what has been learned, and what the implications are for organization and development of human services in rural areas--in Alaska primarily, but also in other parts of the land.

1

Effectiveness

There can be little doubt that the delivery of aid and services to troubled individuals and families by indigenous Human Services Aides was successfully demonstrated. Similarly, there was strong evidence of success with community development activities of Human Services Aides in the arena of aiding villages in meeting social problems and increasing their potential for self-help. But not all Aides performed equally well in both roles; nor was there equal quality or quantity of performance among Aides either in the direct services or the community development aspects of their work.

To some extent, these differences were a function of the recruitment process in combination with the available market for recruitment of persons with desired qualifications. The wide differences among Aides' personalities, ties, village locations, conditions, and resources affected the kinds of tasks individual Aides performed (and reported) and how effectively these appeared to be carried out. But these differences were not adequately dealt with either in the training phases of the demonstration or the supervision of the Aides. The two periods of academic training and the supervision were of value in helping the recruits handle tasks involving eligibility and grant determination, but they did not provide the Aides with certain knowledge, skills, and supports that might have helped several to realize their own potential for performing their major tasks.

These gaps in training and supervision are associated with the limited experience and usable knowledge about human behavior (in general, as well as that culturally-determined in the Kuskokwim-Yukon region) possessed by the training instructor (under supervision of the Anchorage Community College)

and the two coordinators (the integral field supervision part of the continuing project). Shortcomings connected with the recruitment of Aides, therefore, were not overcome by the input of instructor or coordinators. The training and supervision did not permit maximization of their potentials or those of the training-supervision dimensions of the demonstration. Some contributions, however, were made not only to what the Aides did learn and were able to apply to their work, but also from the standpoint of identifying features that constituted barriers to learning and performance. These barriers can be avoided in future training and supervision of indigenous personnel.

Perhaps one of the chief findings is that even without continual sophisticated supervision, indigenous aides achieve amazingly positive results through their own ingenuity and common sense in combination with their concerns about people. A correlative finding came from the strong patterns of the Aides showing that they would have achieved more in direct services as well as community development had they had access to the understanding about human behavior and resources that a well-equipped supervisor could have helped them to use pragmatically--knowledge specifically requested in the reiterated question: "What would a social worker do about this?"[1]

The administrative supports and the staff development aspects of the project (other than the academic training phases of RASS and the educational role of the coordinators) actually started late and had less time in which to

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[1]Aides' concerns often showed uncertainty about their behavior in response to parental neglect endangering a child. Aspects of the social worker's role as an agent of socialization (teaching of child care, acting as data resource, and giving direct feedback on how Aide and other villagers perceive parents' behavior) could be included as a useful part of preparing the Aide for his role in the village.

contribute to the demonstration. Nevertheless, there were evidences of effectiveness in the way the administrative personnel and the Bethel training supervisor related to the work of the Aides and to the objectives of the demonstation.

Time also was a significant factor in the failure of the project to make much headway in relation to the goal of coordination. Some vertical coordination had been achieved by the time the project was concluded. Some success was noted with regard to greater utilization of certain resources by Aides and growing cooperation among RASS and DPW personnel and those in other agencies, particularly at State and federal levels. A Governor's Committee on Policy was established in the last month of the demonstration. Its two two-day meetings produced clues to the valuable role such a committee might play in a demonstration. At the local level of Aide and village, coordination was sporadic, deliberate in only a few instances. While the coordination phase of the demonstration was barely effective in some respects--and not at all in others--time was against achievement of the coordination goal: it was not realizable and, therefore, unrealistically incorporated as a specific project goal. This will be discussed further in the ensuing pages.

It is evident from the preceding that the various objectives of the project were so interrelated that there was a reciprocal impact of each on the effectiveness of the others. All were influenced by the severity of social problems affecting individuals and villages, geographic location, limited transportation and communication, overwhelming obstacles to economic and healthy functioning, and other factors of persons and places. The findings from the data analyzed separately for the different areas of the evaluation merge in several ways to form composites that warrant special consideration.

2

The Models of Service

Three different models of performance were found to exist among the nineteen Human Services Aides. One was a direct services model, one a community development model, and the third combined direct services and community development activities.

The Direct Services Model

Twelve of the Aides concentrated on the direct delivery of aid and services to families and individuals. Several of these HSAs undertook an occasional community development task. These tended to be short-lived single objective actions,[1] generally initiated by someone other than the Aide and carried through by the initiator. Three of the twelve did not engage in community development actions at all; these three also reported the smallest number of case service actions. Two others with relatively small numbers of reported case service actions (22 or less) also occasionally described a community development action. Some of these were sustained efforts; others were brief tasks.

The three Aides with the least number of case service actions and no community development actions concentrated their attentions--at least to the extent that they were reported[2]--on eligibility and grants; there were few instances of service actions with non-recipients of aid. Moreover, the bulk of their actions were single objective tasks, with a few episodes of service,

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[1] See Chapter II for definitions of single objective services, episodes of service, and the sequential treatment model.

[2] One of the three had severe limitations in writing, and there were no verbal reports. The other two were Native village women.

and some sequential services in the instance of only one of these Aides. Other Aides in this model carried out a range of tasks: from serving as interpreter or letter writer to counselor, to decision-maker, to trainer, to advocate--although not all fulfilled all of these (and other) roles.

In general, the Aides were more comfortable with or saw more opportunity in providing services to individuals and families. And, in general, with the exception of the three discussed above, there was a steady increase in the volume of services rendered to non-recipients as well as to public assistance recipients, with a growing number of episodes of service and planned sequential services reflecting the Aides' expanding knowledge and experience in their human services roles.

The Community Development Model

The interest of one Aide was clearly and primarily focused on community development. He submitted a modest number of case service action reports--more than 36 percent of which were episodes of service, and nearly five percent sequential treatment actions. The emphasis on planning towards a long range social goal discernible in the nature, quality, and quantity of the community development reports was apparently present also in those case service actions reports. But the case service actions tended to be taken because a due date had arrived for a social study or a reinvestigation of eligibility, or because in the course of this Aide's work as a village council member or in community development, he encountered someone who needed his help. The concentration of energy and effort, however, was on coping with the social needs of the village as a whole rather than the single-family approach. Here again, the Aide in the community development model served as intervener, decision-maker, planner, interpreter, advocate.

The Combination Model: Direct and Community Services

Six Aides involved themselves both in providing direct services to individuals and families (recipients and non-recipients) and in community development tasks of various kinds. Their direct services included relatively high proportions of episodes of service and of sequential services. Similarly, their community development actions tended to be more than single objective tasks. They were among the highest producers of direct services as well as of community development services. In fact, it is in this group that the Aide is to be found who had the highest volume both of case service actions and of community development actions. And in this model was also found the range of roles noted in the two models above.

Significant in relation to this group of Aides is the fact that all directly connected the nature and reiteration of family problems with the necessity for approaching their solution on a community-wide, or even State-wide, basis. Although their language was different, in effect they recognized the need for a public health model for attacking community health problems. Several, like the one Aide in the community development model were active in their village councils and/or worked closely with the council.

Task Performance

Regardless of the model into which an Aide fitted, it was easier for most of them to perform prescribed single objective tasks. Indeed, it was not at all uncommon for them to engage in single objective tasks that were concrete personal services: repairing washing machines, fixing a boat motor, hauling wood or fuel, and caring for children. But all single objective tasks were not equally uncomplicated. A "friendly visit," for example,

involved considerable effort for some Aides, in part because of the accustomed observance of privacy, in part because some Aides simply found it hard to perform tasks that were not prescribed.

The Aides' actual performance and their own ranking of complexity or difficulty in task performance[1] reveal that, with the exception of actions regarding problem behavior, they considered as most difficult the tasks that require planning help to individuals and writing of evaluations based on the assessment of problems, identifying commom class problems in a village, and either bringing the problem to the attention of DPW or initiating remedial action through the villages. These tasks generally are involved in considering village needs and approaches toward solution through community development.

And Recruitment. The need to perform such tasks holds implications not only for recruitment, but for what must go into training and supervision if the Aide is actually to engage in the dual role of direct case action and community development action. How can the person with difficulty in written expression initiate correspondence essential to inquiry or prosecution about a possible village undertaking? How can women Aides who do not venture forth into village affairs be expected to undertake community development? The situation has import not only for recruitment and training, but also for DPW expectations. Some Aides might not be expected to do community development work, either because of factors such as those just noted, or because the sizes and locations of the Aides' villages preclude community development. It also would seem practical that in some villages or clusters of villages two Aides might be employed: one to concentrate on community development,

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[1] See Charts I and II in Appendix.

the other on case service actions (although not necessarily exclusively). The point is that certain Aides have certain talents and potentials; DPW must decide what optimum contribution can be made and accept the fact that not all Aides can do all tasks, although a reasonable variety of work should be expected of the indigenous Aide who is a full-time employee.

And Workloads. The matter of models of service also raises questions about the size and composition of workload that each Aide can reasonably be expected to carry. Examination of (1) the geographic distribution of caseloads in relation to communication and transportation; (2) the availability and accessibility of resources for helping individuals or families; (3) the potential for village development, based on standardized techniques or some common points of inquiry by each Aide for assessing potential. These data and other obtainable information should make it possible to establish criteria for workload size, with adjustment dependent upon which of the three models of HSA activity will be followed by the given Aide. Such information also is dependent, to a marked degree, upon a regular flow of relevant statistics from Aides in villages to their supervisor, who should examine these statistics in relation to individual and common characteristics to form a judgment about what constitutes a reasonable workload and what realistic expectations should be held by agency and Aide regarding volume of work to be performed. Such regularly supplied data would permit discriminating judgments as to differences in workloads that can be performed by Aides collectively as well as individually.

How an Aide performs will also be contingent on his life style--which can be expected to resemble the life style of the village in which he lives and works: this is the essence of being indigenous, of being accepted by

other villagers as one of them. This is particularly a matter of interest in three respects. One relates to two activities that involve many men in these villages: National Guard encampment, and subsistence fishing and hunting. When the data were examined to see, if possible, how much work was performed by each Aide and the pattern, if any, of absences from the RASS demonstration, it was noted that seven of the sixteen male Aides took military leave and that many of the men used their annual leave plus other days without pay--authorized and unauthorized--to fish and hunt in season. The implications are clear: the continuance of certain life styles by the Aides (aside from any personal reasons) is instrumental in helping the villagers to retain trust in the Aide as someone who understands them, and is one of them. The pattern of such activities, then, should be ascertained and taken into account in the planning and assignment of work to the Aides; it also suggests the necessity for including plans for how the workload would be covered during these seasonal or periodic absences.[1]

The second activity is one that affects fewer Aides but which, in time, might touch the work behavior of more. This is Aide participation in Statewide or other meetings associated with their village council role or their involvement in cooperatives in their respective villages. Such absences generally ought to be viewed as part of the Aide's work, and the time for participation in such events be considered as work time. Aside from any effects this may have on morale of an individual Aide (and it should be noted that no reduction in morale for such reasons was observed), the recognition

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[1] It was observed that some Aides could plan well in advance that they would be absent for certain two- or three-day periods, for they knew the dates on which the fish would "run."

by the agency of his participation in such a meeting adds immeasurably to the Aide's status in the village (as well as elsewhere) and enhances his potential for making an impact on social problems in the village as a representative of the agency.

And Villager Role. Another aspect of the Aide's life style has a positive bearing on his role as an HSA. This is his connection with the village power structure; namely, the village council. Whether he is himself a member of the council, or respected by the council which therefore works with him as a trusted member of the village, this more or less formal association has added force to the Aide's work role. It was found that the most productive members of the HSA groups tended either themselves to be members or ex-members of the council; sometimes they had kinship ties which enabled them to interpret to the council the work they were doing and to solicit the council's help.[1] Of course, there were occasions when anger was directed at the Aide because of such ties. In the main this association was a valuable asset to RASS--either because there was demonstrated leadership on the part of the Aide that could be built upon as he carried on his HSA functions, or because he had a good channel through which to communicate client or village needs and through which coordination within the village could be effected.

Several Aides were accorded high regard because of their fishing or hunting prowess. In a land where necessity and tradition place a major burden on the hunter or the fisherman to meet the survival needs of family and community, this display of adequacy merited respect that was carried over into other roles, including that of advice-giving. Even a relatively youthful

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[1]The exception was one female HSA who avoided the council of which her husband was a member.

Aide who demonstrates such hunting or fishing skills acquires special stature in the community that carries over into his counseling role.

As has been noted, however, in several respects the status of the Aides in the village was such that the Aide had to devote additional effort to establishing trust and respect in his Human Services Aide role. If such effort was indeed invested, it was not necessarily successful. This was especially true of two village women Aides. The Aides disadvantaged by their apparent youthfulness could overcome this "disadvantage." The way they applied themselves to carrying out tasks that would meet the social needs of families and individuals older than they served to create trust, although the Aides in such positions tended to move with considerable care, as the reports indicated. A third kind of situation also was subject to modification because of the Aides' approach to their work and to other villagers. This was the Aide's membership in a family towards which some other villagers might feel less than kindly.

Training for the Models of Service

The findings and implication for the direct service model, the community development model, or the combination model suggest content and methodology for training of Human Services Aides. The data distinctly revealed that the Aides must be helped to understand human behavior and conditions as well as ways to modify them in coping with needs and problems of individuals and families. The Aides also must be helped to understand and implement the public health approach to community problem-solving, not only a family-by family approach.

For the most part the Aides see each family's problem as discrete. If this perception and conception continue, it is unlikely that they will address

the problem as one that is pervasive or endemic in the larger community. It is understandable that such perceptions and conceptions are difficult to alter in training courses; but this must be attempted if current views and approaches are to change.

Research provides convincing evidence that adults learn best when they are engaged in solving problems they see as significant for them. This evaluative research clearly identified problems which all of the Aides regard as troubling to individual families, if not to the village as a whole. The need for income, the difficulties in meeting economic needs through desired work, the prevalence of alcoholism and associated child abuse and other unacceptable behavior, the incidence of physical illness and accidents and injuries--all of these are frequently observed by the Aides and distress them. It is around such problems, then, that training for Aides should begin and be continued, from the simplest and most readily recognized symptoms and ways of coping with them, to the increasingly complex problems or clusters of problems not as amenable to early resolution as is the problem of economic need that can be responded to relatively quickly by providing financial assistance.

The findings about village problems and about training content and methods to which Aides were most responsive (as revealed in their reports as well as in their specific statements) suggest that teaching methods in the training courses for Aides should employ such problem-solving efforts in the classroom. These methods should make maximum use of peer learning and consultation, with the idea that such ongoing learning and sharing can become part of the work of the Aides in their contact with each other--an emphasis on interdependence with each other, rather than dependence upon the instructor or, later, upon a supervisor. There is reason to believe that the concept of interdependence

in learning and exchanging the results of their experiences would be compatible with a culture that emphasizes mutual aid, sharing of resources, and collaborative rather than competitive goals and operations.

The training format and content utilized with the Aides in the RASS demonstration contained some productive sound elements. Eligibility and grant determination, for example, were eventually mastered despite the limited comprehension of arithmetical computations by some Aides. Some areas of methodology and content were not fruitful. This is for a combination of reasons, the most important probably being that traditional social work principles and behaviors were not necessarily sorted out in relation either to the RSAs' training needs and expectations, or to village life and problems. Thus the Aides were not encouraged to engage in delivery of human services that would begin to meet needs that are peculiar to residents and life styles in individual villages, to utilize resources that might be called upon or improvised by the Aides through a merging of their native skills, talents, and interests in being helping persons with knowledge of village life and potentials, or to truly help villagers cope with their problems and villages by assuming a public health stance towards village problem-solution.

Granted that there are cultural and language differences among the villages, there nevertheless appeared to be insufficient relating of the Aides' culturally determined perceptions with the impact of these on their learning and on their eventual performance in the villages where similar cultural nuances are to be found. Confidentiality, for example, was heavily stressed throughout the training aspects of RASS to the extent that there appeared to have been an "over-learning" of confidentiality. The rigidity of adherence to this concept seemed to transcend other considerations with

regard to (1) Aides sharing with each other their learning experiences and their problem solutions; and (2) the extent to which consultation or other help was sought from DPW or outside agencies towards solution of a problem of a particular family or individual. There can be little doubt, however, that the training emphasis on confidentiality merely served to reinforce the dearly-held cultural concept; namely, the unacceptability of invading the privacy of others. The importance of this concept is readily apparent when one considers that many older Natives often still view as an invasion of privacy the stranger's request for names. How differently would the principle of confidentiality have been approached in the academic training phases had the impact of this cultural value been taken into account in planning course content and method?

Closely related to the conclusion that greater discriminations is indicated in determining which traditional social work methods and concepts should be supplied--and for what potential use--is the implication that only "casework method" per se was appropriate for use with villagers on a one-to-one or one-to-one family working relationship. The assurance to Aides that "this is good casework" set before them an unrealistic model and expectation that they would be "minisocial workers" rather than Human Services Aides who could utilize any of several helping modalities or parts of them (or even create their own) to resolve a given problem. Certain prescribed skills generally can be taught and learned; these can support and help the Aide to do what he does naturally, and they can provide some assurance that the Aide knows procedures and policies regarding eligibility and grant determination as well as certain resources (for example, BIA General Relief or referral to the medical or health aide). But it is on his discretionary decision and ac-

tions that reliance must be placed. Consequently, methodology and content of initial training and of continued in-service training or staff development activities also need to be geared to decision-making.

The objectives of the training require periodic reexamination in light of the model of human services aide to be produced, the range of individual problems and community problems he will encounter and need to face as well as to assist others in facing, and the extent of his responsibility and decision-making. He must be autonomous not just in crises, but in planning and carrying out direct services and community development tasks without being able to consult with anyone outside the village.

Method and content of training are merely means for developing skilled, dedicated and self-reliant human services workers.

Content. Learning needs, motivations and patterns varied considerably among the Aides. Nevertheless, all had to acquire certain information and skill. Information even on sources of data is a necessary foundation of skill. The body of policies and procedures that must be mastered in a public agency extending aid and other services mandates the acquisition of certain knowledge. This every person in an aid or other service role must have. The rate at which Aides could learn other kinds of information varied widely, from the person who needed to cling tightly to tangible rules and procedures that could be observed, and read and carried out by means of forms and numbers; to the Aide who could observe affect and interpret its significance for the Native confronted with an inter-personal or intra-personal problem with which he required help.

The findings from the examination of social problems, family and village coping patterns, resources, training and staff development data analyses suggest that certain considerations need to be taken into account in the planning and implementation of orientation and training for indigenous personnel who will be carrying human services delivery responsibilities.

The training content for the Aide just beginning his work as an HSA from the outset can profitably include the philosophy and functioning of the host agency and its several programs, with emphasis on the purposes of public welfare. Such content enables the Aide to identify with the agency program and goals. More importantly, it assists him in deriving from this knowledge and identification the "authorization" for pursuing these goals in the villages assigned to him. If, as was mentioned previously, the training focuses on the kinds of problems he sees and knows as a villager and what more he needs to understand about them in order to be involved in problem-solving, he will be able to translate into concrete, intimately known terms the less familiar concepts that for many of the Aides were difficult to grasp. The intent of this emphasis is not so much on training being problem-oriented as it is on focusing the training on areas of life, behavior, and cultural views that are meaningful to the Natives and can be put into comprehensible words that do not need to be explained or modified or amplified by other words. Such problem-solving has to be related to the aspirations of the Aides and the villagers--for themselves, for their families, for their villages. Not capable of being overstated is the importance of relating the interpretation of problems and the application of solutions to the culture within which both the Aide and the client (or village) find themselves. Even though the Aide may have moved away from the culture's grasp in some instances, those with whom he is working nevertheless are both affected by it and are a part of it.

The findings point to cultural and familial and community factors and attitudes that in one or another ways affect the functioning of the Aide as a developer and agent of human services. Some of these he is readily able to understand in much the same way that he learns about eligibility and grant determination. Hostility, for example, is encountered by every Aide; though a feeling, it is capable of being seen and heard, and it has to be faced by the Aide. The word "hostility" may connote little to some Aides, but they readily understand the "jealousy" and "anger" displayed by the unsuccessful applicant for this same job; they can comprehend, although with sadness, the angry refusal of the relatives to socialize with the Aide because presumably the Aide has for some reason altered the amount of the grant--or even denied assistance. To recognize the impact of such reactions on the client's functioning, and how the Aide can cope with these manifestations of hostility, is something which most of the Aides can learn and use in their work at least at a beginning level.

To move beyond these areas of learning about rules and procedures (in some respects the relatively simplest level of learning), through the level of observable and experienced behavior and steps for coping with such behavior (the harder level), to the most complex level of knowledge and skill that deals with other forms of social need and behavior on a larger scale than on the one-to-one approach does not appear to be possible for all of the Aides--at least in the same span of time.

It was found that as time passed and the Aides acquired both more experience in performing their tasks and greater comfort with the manner and extent of their accomplishments, more Aides began to venture forth from the structure of procedures and regulations toward engagement in other tasks.

This suggests that orientation or training programs for new, inexperienced Aides might have to concentrate on the fundamentals of understanding and working in programs of public assistance, deferring teaching designed to enhance understanding and working with difficult behavior to points in time when the Aide clearly has mastered the intricacies of the daily job. Moreover, it is in this second phase that he is likely to be responsive to community development knowledge and skills, for presumably he now is able to see the pattern whereby certain problems are repeated from family to family and to take cognizance of these as social problems that are of concern to the wider community. This is not to say that only after the Aide has been on the job for a comparatively lengthy period of time should he be exposed to other kinds of information and beginning skills for coping with problems. Rather, initial teaching might focus on the non-threatening and non-challenging specifics of available resources (including assistance) with regard to emotionally or mentally disturbed or retarded clients and how to make referrals, for example. There is reason to believe that the new Aide's growing awareness of symptomatology and ways of working with deviant behavior can more effectively be exploited in terms of learning-teaching when the Aide's uneasiness about his rudimentary performance has been replaced by a reasonable degree of self-assurance about conformity with the legal and agency requirements for doing his day-to-day job.

Methodologies. The point has already been made of the desirability of shortening the formal training phases in favor of other timing and pacing of training for new Aides. Patterns of conceptualization, of absence from family, and others imply that when the locus of training is away from his native village and his home, the tolerance level for maximal learning by the Aide

is reached in about six weeks. This is also the period which seems to be most conducive to learning about agency program, policies and procedures, and resources. If, based upon the knowledge already gained about the kinds of problems Aides are likely to encounter in their villages, they are prepared for the fact that such problems will arise--even though they might not yet be prepared for dealing with them except individually--a return to the village at this point for practical on-the-job learning would be in order. This could then be followed by a return to a central learning place for two or three weeks of examination about what the experiences in the village had been, using these experiences as a foundation for consolidating the learnings about agency program and procedures and moving on to the next level of learning about patterns of behavior and how to cope with them. Were this to be followed by a carefully planned and spaced series of lecture-workshop sessions, the Aide would be likely to absorb with greater ease the increasing complexity of knowledge being afforded him, to apply it very quickly, and to have an opportunity to share the consequences with his peers and with the training personnel so that he can profit from knowing what he had done well or what he had done that requires some improvement.

Some of the training reports emphasized the importance of participant observation as a means by which the Aides learned a considerable amount, particularly when they had opportunity to accompany DPW child welfare staff members during the course of the latter's regular day's work and to discuss with these staff members the reasons for their decisions and actions. It obviously is much more difficult to arrange for such observational experiences in community development than for direct services. Nevertheless, such occasions might be developed if considered sufficiently important, planned

ahead of time, and included in the training schedule with adequate opportunity for discussion with the instructors, the staff involved, and with each other. Through this means, goals could be made clear, principles enunciated, and methods offered and assessed.

Although the RASS experience showed such observation experience to be particularly productive, some of the Aides gained a great deal from the field placements in which they had opportunity to learn about the host agency, and to test themselves in working with clients in various kinds of situations. Such field training experiences have considerable merit, provided (1) they are carefully planned in advance, (2) the cases are specially selected because of their learning value for the Aides and are progressive in their complexity, and (3) there is occasion for the training personnel to work closely with the agency supervising personnel to maximize the learning opportunities and efforts of the Aide.

Although the visual aids and role playing that sometimes were used met positive reactions from the Aides, such training devices were employed relatively little. Yet both hold particular promise for effectively contributing to the learning of Aides. Role-playing is common in the growing-up play of Eskimo children and has both the value of familiarity and appeal to the Natives' marked sense of humor. Motion pictures have demonstrated popularity among the Natives. They can convey certain concepts through pictorial presentations that cross language and literacy barriers. There is scope for training films based on problems and life styles close to those of the villages.

It should be stressed that the training for Aides should not be confined to periods when they begin on the job; staff development must be a

continuing dimension in the program of utilizing indigenous Native deliverers of human services, as is necessary with other paraprofessional and professional personnel. This means that there should be periodic "refresher" activities of workshop or other kinds of sessions that bring or renew knowledge, that stimulate the Aide's thinking and perspective and encourage him thereby to take actions appropriate to direct service or community development in his daily functioning.

The logical next step is, of course, implementation of a policy of educational leave to permit the Aide to engage in an organized program of learning that would add to his skills in job performance and develop his potential for creative and innovative human services. Such learning experiences are best provided in an academic setting where they can lead to a tangible symbol of achievement: a degree of some kind. To prepare an Aide with capacity for such training to take advantage of it may require some preliminary investment on the part of the agency to assist the Aide to acquire the equivalent preparatory work. In addition to the current encouragement to take correspondence courses toward completion of high school requirements, this may mean some arrangements should be made for in-person tutoring at regular intervals as well as by correspondence. The increased job satisfaction which is likely to result undoubtedly would benefit the agency and its clientele, as well as provide an encouraging example for other Aides and Natives.

A further inference can be drawn from the findings pertaining to training. It seems important that the Aides become conscious of the components and methods of such learning and teaching as they experience in their own training, and that they be assisted both within the training and through

ongoing supervision and/or consultation to use similar methods as they undertake certain aspects of village work that in essence are adult education. Such consciousness will serve at least two purposes. One is to increase the likelihood that the Aides themselves will invest more in their own learning and will take greater responsibility for it. The second is to make it possible for them to learn how to teach, and through such teaching, to integrate their own learning to a greater degree.

Trainers. The data showed the importance of supplying Human Services Aides with knowledgeable instructors, supervisors, and consultants if their promise and potential are to be realized in furthering the agency's purposes. There can be no question that those in supervisory, instructing, or consultative roles--all having an educational component and responsibility--must know and respect village life and life styles, must possess social work knowledge and skills as well as knowledge of the agency's policies and programs, must be familiar with existing resources and know how to make effective use of them, and must have teaching skills.

The RASS training experience demonstrated, among other things, the importance of retaining responsibility within the parent agency for the planning and implementation of training for the Aides. It is evident that the Aides learned the most from training and other personnel within DPW. There is strong likelihood that this learning is explained by the professional knowledge and skill of the DPW personnel in training and consultative roles. It is also possible, however, that some of the learning evolved from the Aide's identification with these trainers as persons employed in the same agency, with goals similar to theirs, and who demonstrate their interest in understanding and helping needy and troubled persons, whether Native or non-Native.

In any event, the fact that they were DPW personnel with current experience in dealing with people like those with whom the Aides would be working--even though the settings might differ--was a plus in the Aides' training experience. This indicates the desirability of future orientation and intensive training sessions being conducted within the framework of DPW by carefully selected personnel under the direction of the Chief of Staff Training Supervisor.[1] It suggests also the possibility that training personnel might maintain a consultative relationship to Aides in villages, especially if skilled supervision is not continuously available to them. What is apparent is that the purchase of training services from persons outside the agency on a continuing or long-term basis was not as fruitful as has been hoped. The purchase of a teacher's services for a lecture or workshop planned with the staff training supervisor and accountable to the staff development program of DPW is more likely to ensure that selected sophisticated suitable material is brought to the Aides, and its potential application in their own village work maximized for them.

On the other hand, there seems to be considerable value in contracting for long-term training with academic institutions when the employee is granted a leave from the job and is able to devote all or nearly all of his time to the educational process. In that instance, then, the academic institution can be expected to take responsibility for the end product and for complying with the expectations of the agency when it makes funds available for the training

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[1] This also would permit some application of learning from the Native Aides to other segments of agency program and operation. Staff members who were accompanied in their field activities by HSAs reported the experiences as contributing to their own understanding.

of the individual employee.

The RASS experience in the training phase of the demonstration pointed to the importance as well as validity of the Division of Public Welfare carrying the primary and overall responsibility for induction training and continuous in-service training within its own agency boundaries, using its DPW personnel in direct training or for selectively planning individual (but integrated sequential) sessions that would involve the participation of outside experts in given areas of knowledge and skill. The experience also underlined the merits of assisting Aides to utilize academic facilities to further their knowledge and education through paid educational leaves (full or part time) or similar arrangements that would enable the Aide to progress to higher levels of service and performance within DPW.

3

The Villages and Villagers

Location and accessibility, biotic resources, the composition and health of families, and available social and economic resources, singly or in any combination, affect the responsiveness of any village to the activities of the Human Services Aides. The data clearly showed that each of the villages involved in the RASS Project encountered varying numbers of problems, with varying degrees of severity, centering around work and income, health (physical as well as mental), education, and others under the broad rubric of "welfare": economic need, child welfare, and rehabilitation. Furthermore, the data underscored the close interlacing of all problems in their effect not only upon single family units, but also the population of the village. Thus the subsistence work round, with its seasonal and climatic implications, could often be tied with alcoholism; common consequences of alcoholism included child abuse and serious accidental injuries; the injuries not

infrequently resulted in continuing disability, and the child abuse in family separations and child placement; lack of educational and economic opportunities increased the reliance of families on the seasonal work round of subsistence hunting and fishing. The findings clearly pointed to the dual approach required if the conditions of villagers and villages are to be improved: services addressed directly to helping families cope with their needs and problems, and activities focused on community development.

Aside from the consideration of the several models of human services perceptible in the RASS experience, several other findings were threaded among the data to form a fabric (albeit thin in spots) important in any continuing work with Native villages and villagers in rural Alaska, particularly those in the Kuskokwim-Yukon region.

It is generally recognized that change essentially is a substitution of one way of doing something for another and that therefore the functions and the compatibility of the old and the new ways have to be examined in relation to the framework of settings and objectives within which the substitution would take place. The reported efforts of the HSAs, and the responses of villages to their efforts, indicate that the Natives are highly rational in viewing their own and white cultures with which they have contact, and that the way of life is not always tradition-bound; there is strong evidence that the Natives are both susceptible to change and seek it. This was repeatedly demonstrated in the way individuals and families sought and used the direct services Aides made available to them; it was strikingly evidenced in the ways villages have moved towards improving housing, developing cooperatives, instituting work projects, and in other ways reacting positively to the community development efforts of Human Services Aides or others in the villages.

Another important thread merits attention in the organization of direct and community services in the rural Native villages. This is the matter of culture per se. New values learned in school, in work experiences outside villages, through radio and motion picture media, make it valid to regard village life as poverty-stricken rather than as true to cultural heritage. Poverty in the villages apparently is a condition of relative deprivation, not a function of culture. A clear perspective must be maintained about this difference between cultural and poverty conditions--as well as the distinction between cultural or pathological manifestations--and contains important implications for the potential success of those delivering direct or community services.

The major findings support the validity of the RASS endeavor to employ indigenous Aides for human services. Over and over, Aides in research and other interviews had described their efforts to "explain" to their training teacher about how hard life is in the villages and to convey the "feel of village living." They emphasized the necessity for those concerned about the villages to "have a feel about the village." They wondered whether anyone "lacking the tongue" could successfully make a point with villagers. (Generally such comments followed or preceded a polite disclaimer along the lines that "present company is excepted.") These comments reinforced what was generally to be inferred from the data; namely, a helper in the arena of aid and services at the family or village level needs to be a resident of the village, who is part of its information and communication system, who knows its culture intimately, and who can be sensitive to the kinds of changes (and ways for achieving them) that can aid in the improvement of health and life styles without running counter to the values in native culture.

Direct Services

Literature on poverty is ambiguous about individuals who are disposed to improve their living conditions. It is commonly maintained that the poor adult may best gain upward mobility and corresponding improvement of his life's circumstances through educational and vocational betterment. Some writers and researchers assert that there must be a willingness to change life conditions by other forms of positive action. There are different points of view concerning how the poor adult might go about obtaining access to education and vocational improvement: by becoming active in organizations, particularly those devoted to economic improvement or increasing the political power of their members; by widening personal contacts; by learning "appropriate" social behavior; or by promoting change by group pressure against poor living conditions. But such literature on poverty generally has not held a spotlight on the kinds of villages comprising the RASS demonstration, that are handicapped by the inaccessibility or the insufficiency or the non-existence of educational and rehabilitative facilities that might hold opportunity for social change.

This paucity of existing or accessible resources for meeting common human needs for work and income, housing, health maintenance, education, and others, imposed on the Human Services Aides the necessity and responsibility for being innovative, resourceful, and pragmatic in their intuitive or learned approaches to helping individuals and families to cope with the problems confronting them.

Difficulties were encountered in referring troubled individuals to needed resources or in utilizing resources in behalf of needy families. Such resources were not for exotic purposes or even, often, for purposes of educational or rehabilitation goals. Sometimes they were resources that

would normally be available for the general population in need of income maintenance because of loss of wages by reason of retirement, disability, or death of a breadwinner--unemployment insurance benefits or OASDHI, for example. Or they might be income maintenance needs that ordinarily would be met for special groups of native persons by a specialized agency: in the instance of Alaskan Natives, the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

The Aides devoted considerable time and effort to helping villagers to complete applications for unemployment insurance or for Social Security benefits. Except that once the eligibility for unemployment insurance benefits had been exhausted and the unemployed needy person was not eligible for one of the categorical federally-aided programs of public assistance administered by DPW, applying for and receiving unemployment insurance benefits constituted no major problem. The situation was different, however, with reference to OASDHI. Representatives of the Social Security Administration visited some villages infrequently and some not at all. The individual now dependent upon the Social Security agency for meeting his survival needs could not know how long it would take before his application might be processed--if ever, or the amount of his entitlement. It was not unusual among the reports of an Aide about a particular client to find that eight or nine months had elapsed between the mailing of the initial application form and continued queries about when benefits would be received. This situation arose frequently about retirement benefits and also about survivors' or disability benefits. The remoteness of the villages both from the Social Security Administration and any substitute or interim resources which could be called upon for help while the Social Security application was pending,

raises a question as to whether it might be possible for DPW to develop a contractual arrangement with the Social Security Administration whereby the Human Services Aide serves as a representative of the Social Security Administration and is delegated responsibility for handling and following through on the application. There might even be reimbursement to DPW on a cost per case or other suitable basis that would permit shortcutting of the channels through which such applications must be routed--a routing that adds considerably to the time already extended by weather and limited communications characteristic of these isolated villages.

Some difficulties noted in relation to the role of BIA in meeting survival needs also might be overcome by the development of a different kind of relationship between BIA and DPW. As has already been stated, in those situations where the village council has a contractual arrangement with BIA for determing need and issuing general assistance from funds supplied by BIA, any problems arising in the distribution of such general relief funds tend to be of the village or village council's own making. In many villages, however, even though BIA is the primary source of general assistance funds for the needy Native, transportation, communication, and other factors preclude relatively smooth administration of this general relief responsibility. It is not inconceivable that the purposes of both DPW and BIA could be constructively met by the development of formal arrangement between these two agencies that would enable the Human Services Aide to administer the general relief funds in his respective villages, the Aide remaining accountable to DPW, and DPW accounting for these expenditures to BIA.

It is in regard to meeting of family economic needs that some especially important findings emerged from the analysis of direct services data. These findings have particular significance for the organization and delivery of

services not only in rural Alaska but also for other people who live in remote and inaccessible regions. There was a marked pattern of activity by the Aides--initiated either by them or by clients or other villagers--that focused on filling in of forms for various income maintenance program, the determination and redetermination of eligibility for public assistance, and establishing (or recalculating) the amount of the grant. The Aide's role in assisting the client to meet his survival needs not infrequently was seminal to or associated with the other services for example, (adoption, working out educational or training or health plans, marital conflicts) he was called upon to provide. The level of literacy, the limits in use of the English language, the distance between the source of the form to be filled in and the client to whom it was directed for completion, the general reluctance of Natives to disclose their private affairs to others, spotlighted sharply on the importance of having a single person in the village (the Human Services Aide) proffer both financial aid and services aimed to meet other family needs and problems.

While non-recipients of public assistance also sought out the Aides' help in steadily increasing numbers, it was evident that the Aides in numerous instances used their assistance function as a bridge for making available to clients other help directed towards problem resolution. It also was evident that clients were not coerced into responsiveness to using such services because of concern that non-compliance would lead to a withholding of assistance. For, while Aides not infrequently "told" the client how he was to behave (particularly when alcoholism was involved), this approach was the same for the aided and non-aided client; "warning" was related to the

behavioral problem and the Aide's perception of how it should be dealt with, and not to expenditure of public money for an assistance grant.

The importance of centralizing in one person the extending of public assistance and other services was underscored when the Aide assumed responsibility for issuing Food Stamps. His stature in the village seemed to increase. Aside from the almost insurmountable administrative problem of supplying enough manpower to meet separately the aid and services functions in these small and distant villages, there was reason to believe that the Aide's role was strengthened by his readiness to fulfill both functions and that the aggregate of his responsibilities served to facilitate his delivery of services to needy and troubled villagers.

Direct service delivery in the villages is hampered by other factors. One is the lack of an office place in which the HSA can conduct his DPW business. Office facilities vary widely among the Aides. Some have adequate quarters and privacy, and some use the family home, occupied by children and other relatives, for the conduct of interviews and other work. Aside from the value of a work place that permits an employee to carry out his tasks without undue distractions, the HSA and his work would benefit in two respects by assuring each Aide of an office. One is that an official office, no matter how modest, would grant the Aide status in the village as a representative of DPW, with a corresponding increase in the respect accorded him by other villagers and, thereby, readiness to utilize his services. The other is that a separate office offers a greater opportunity to preserve privacy, thereby encouraging the client to share with the Aide the problems that trouble him. This is of particular importance in light of the aforementioned cultural attitudes of the Native about privacy.

The analysis of the direct services data disclosed patterns of delay in problem-solving and coping with crises that undoubtedly exacerbated problems. Although no quantitative analysis was made, there was vivid evidence of situations which deteriorated with the passage of time. Outcomes might have been different in some of these had the Human Services Aide had quick access by radio or telephone to consult about certain observed symptoms of behavior, to hasten action in the delivery of assistance or medical care, or to secure needed resource.

Community Development

Even the most cursory glimpse at some of the villages poses serious questions as to whether community development is an appropriate and economical goal in which DPW should make an investment. Some are small and isolated; they are bereft of human and other resources that can be channeled into constructing a reasonably strong economic base. The presence of only four families in a village for example, or a population composed of elderly residents who declined to move to a new location--these situations do not suggest a concentration of agency efforts for the development of the community. This is not to say that the villages should be abandoned, or that no effort should be made to work with the residents. The efforts necessarily have to be on a one-by-one basis to meet the needs of the individual family with regard to problems that have both individual and broader community aspects. It might be possible for certain of these small villages to join forces with other villages in the region for economic development purposes, particularly for such undertakings as cooperative marketing of crafts, or cooperative freezers. It probably would be impractical to endeavor to bring jobs into these small and almost inaccessible villages.

Nor is it likely that training of reasonably young and healthy residents of such communities would lead to self-support on a year-round basis if such residents remaining in these villages are reluctant to leave them.

Several questions are posed by the community needs of these villages. One is whether, once an assessment has been made that there is limited or no potential in the village for economic improvement--housing as well as income from work, direct services should be supplied on a continuous basis. And could, then, a "roving" community development model HSA be available to consult with the direct services HSA regarding potentials in such villages, to assist the latter Aide to initiate and carry through certain measures that might be possible with regard, for instance, to involving such a small village in the cooperative activities of other villages? This would both assure that the potentials in such villages are not overlooked and that a better distribution of manpower skills can be effected.

The data analysis disclosed that village work projects have taken hold and are being utilized in middle-sized and larger villages, but that there is only a small beginning in the development of and participation in cooperatives. However, there is an apparently growing recognition by Aides and by other villagers of the advantages of the cooperatives; with some examples of cooperatives as "going concerns" there is likely to be an increased awareness of their possibilities. An Arts and Crafts cooperative, for example, might well develop and facilitate the efforts of several families in a single village or among several villages, and might extend the interest of others to join these efforts. In those villages that have access to wood, there certainly must be skills for making of sleds, boats, and household items--these, after all, have been part of the Native way of life for many years. These skills in wood handling might productively be turned to the

making of tourist items like ladles and spoons to a greater extent than appears to have been the case heretofore. Could these skills be extended to production of masks? wooden containers? other traditional Native items of interest to tourists? Grass baskets and ivory carvings from the RASS region are becoming increasingly well known and are being offered for resale through the Arts and Crafts Division of the Alaska Native Service. One village--Toksook Bay—is developing a ceramics project. While it is not suggested that arts and crafts could necessarily become a primary source of support for many families, they could be useful in supplementing family income.[1]

Fishing cooperatives, already underway in some villages, offer opportunity for productive commercial fishing enterprise, especially if a hand-pack cannery can be established as in the cooperative at Alakanuk.

Not only is major funding support required to offer the collaborative assistance essential for the villagers to gain a good start in the development of cooperatives; it also is clear that a major educational program is necessary to bring knowledge about the advantages and ways of work of cooperatives to the members of the village councils and through them, with the assistance of Human Services Aides, to all of the people of the villages. From the village surveys and other data it was found that not all of the Aides have sufficient information about cooperatives to be of assistance; additional help must be given to enhance their knowledge and skill in working with village councils towards the development of a range of cooperatives that could increase the year-round employment of men and women, that could increase the regular income as well, could give them the responsibility

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[1]Members of the research team visited numerous arts and crafts outlets in Anchorage and Juneau catering to tourists, and found almost no items produced in the Kuskokwim-Yukon region despite a determined search.

and pride of ownership, and could develop a strong economic base within at least some of the villages. Young people then could have realistic alternatives about remaining in their villages and/or returning to them following a period of higher education outside the village.

A major stumbling block in any community development undertaking is the question about how to involve villagers in working towards a common goal which they recognize as important for the well being of the community. Such an involvement has to be connected with a felt need and, in the instance of the rural Alaska Natives, must be tangible. In this connection, it is surprising how little has been done among the Aides with regard to the issue of land claims which, in a number of the villages, offer a natural unifying force for other cooperative and collaborative efforts.

It is commonly expected that the focus of a community development activity will be the construction of a solid economic base which would enable a community to become economically self-supporting and to improve the social environment, particularly with regard to housing, education, and facilities for health care. Community development activities in the Kuskokwim-Yukon area could be expected to have an important by-product; namely, improved mental health. There is a growing body of information that relates the emotional disturbances, particularly among adolescents and adults, to absences to attend school or receive medical care, to the discontinuity between the academic experiences and home values and experiences, to the poor command of language that places many Natives at a disadvantage in seeking contacts for work or school outside of the family village. There were numerous reports of primary education in the villages that is not geared to the daily life of the Native or to the Native language. Parents, sensitive to

their own lacks, want children to have an education but cannot help them directly. Improved educational facilities for children as well as for adults within the villages is an urgent community development goal not only for the educational purposes per se, but also in the interests of mental health of the village families.

Similarly, better access to medical care, including psychiatric consultation or treatment, appears to be an urgent need. How often would earlier medical care have prevented a medical situation from deteriorating to the point that the patient could not retain his ability to be self-maintaining? How often could early symptoms of disturbance have been assessed for treatment required to prevent full-blown deviant behavior? How often could consultation by the Human Services Aide or a health aide have been instrumental in helping a family to cope with the distressing behavior of an unhappy disturbed adolescent? Or to deal with depression before it becomes pervasive? The absence of medical care, except for the sporadic rare visits of a medical team or public health nurse, is a serious problem. Patients must go as far as Anchorage for psychiatric diagnosis, consultation, or treatment. There would be value in regular visits of a psychiatric team to the United States Public Health Service Hospital in Bethel, scheduled sufficiently far in advance so that the Human Services Aide, health aide or other concerned person in the village might know that on certain days of each week or each month a psychiatrist can be consulted in the Bethel Hospital.

The development of psychiatric resources in Bethel on a regular even though not full-time basis would be a major step in assisting those supplying human services in their endeavor to cope with certain social problems. For example, alcoholism is listed in all but one of the RASS villages as a

primary social problem. Yet it is one of the most difficult problems for even the most skilled members of the helping profession. Such progress as has been made in recent years has tended to involve group sessions with alcoholics as well as with others needing ther[illegible]c social clubs (wives, or relatives of children or others away from home for a long time). The availability of a psychiatric consultant in Bethel would make it possible to provide Human Services Aides with some guidance about how to form and conduct such group sessions with alcoholics, not from the standpoint of group formation, but rather from the point of view of the objectives that can be achieved, the behavior manifestations that might be encountered en route to those objectives, and how the Aide can handle himself in the face of the kinds of behaviors he would encounter in the conduct of such group sessions for alcoholics. This, of course, also raises the question about who in the village should supply what kind of service. This is a matter of import in connection with coordination and cooperation, to be discussed later.

4

Administrative and Supervisory Supports

Diverse findings with administrative and supervisory dimensions emerged from the five areas of evaluative research. Many of these have been mentioned elsewhere, ranging from the importance of office space and devices for communication beyond the boundaries of the village, to the nature and scope of supervision and the location and form of decision-making. The quality and climate of administration is a key to successful operation of a program of social services such as that undertaken in RASS. The quality and climate of continuing administrative responsibility and authority likewise shape the

direction and effectiveness in a continuing offering of social services by indigenous personnel in distant communities.

It becomes an administrative responsibility to decide which model (one or more) to use, what training will be most effective to achieve the purposes for which indigenous personnel are employed, and the manner in which the indigenous personnel invest themselves in carrying out their functions. It becomes an administrative responsibility to determine whether Aides assigned responsibility for certain villages should concentrate their efforts on direct service, leaving to a "traveling consultant"--a native familiar with the area, its problems, its resources, and its people--the task of working with the former around any particular development prospects or potentials that may be discernible. In other words, it becomes an administrative task to determine how the skills possessed by the available indigenous personnel can be utilized most constructively in carrying out the agency's purpose of service in the Native villages of rural Alaska. For example, several HSAs have successfully corresponded directly with legislators or other officials to acquaint them with a community need or project and enlist their help. Given the import of their inimitable manner of expressing graphically the needs and feelings of villagers and the inevitable long time periods involved in correspondence, should HSAs always route all extra-agency correspondence through "channels"? Can exceptions to an established procedure be authorized in advance, with provision perhaps for carbons to be supplied the appropriate DPW office? Such decision-making can most effectively evolve in connection with three functional elements: consultation, coordination, and continuous collection and use of data.

Consultation

Reasons previously mentioned--including geographic and communication

factors, the native sense of pride in his independence and inadequacy in fulfilling his tasks, and others--suggest that the use of supervision in the traditional sense may be less effective than the use of consultants with a staff relationship to the Aides. Administrative supervision which encompasses accountability for workload management, and decisions relative to administering the aid and service programs for which the Human Services Aides carry line responsibility, needs to be delegated to a person accessible to, respectful of and respected by the Aides. The logical location of such administrative supervision is the Bethel District Office and through it, the regional office to which the Bethel District in turn is accountable. But other responsibilities generally carried by a field supervisor--the educational, advisory, and consultative roles--might better be supplied by consultants of two kinds.

One consultant should provide the Aides with regular opportunities to confer about case service actions and community development attempts and experiences; to evaluate what has happened, why, and how; and to reinforce and further build the Aides' own knowledge and competence in the direct service and community action components of their work. If such consultants could be thought of in just that term--consultants rather than supervisors--and actualized accordingly, and if the interdependence and responsibilities begun in the course of training could be reaffirmed and strengthened through such regular conferences and consultations, the beginning Sequential Treatment model efforts of some of the Aides toward larger and longer term service-delivery and community problem-solving (often intuitive and groping, without any supports) might be clarified, made more firm, and given official sanction they deserve as a valuable part of their work. This consultant might be the staff development supervisor or some other designated professional social

worker with consultative and/or teaching skill in communicating knowledge and stimulating thinking and learning.

Such consultations should be complemented with regular opportunities for the Aides to meet with each other for exchange of information, experiences, and ideas about individual problem solving and community development. Such peer group exchange and consultation would illustrate and offer official sanction to the Aides for the task they undertake. It would more truly convey and demonstrate the goal of helping the Aides to help individual village families to help themselves in determining their own goals, opportunities, and choices, and to live their own lives in accordance with whatever blend of life styles of the Native and of the white man that would make sense to them. In effect, such exchanges and consultations could provide the Aide with a model to follow in his own relationships with clients and other villagers. Both the consultation and the peer group sessions would serve to clarify who in the village can and should give what service (for example, the teacher, the magistrate), and who can be given what kind of consultative help by an Aide. In other words, the peer group and consultation would assist the Aide in knowing how to give and to obtain consultation in his work with others in the village.

The other kind of consultation would be that provided by the specialist to whom the Aide should be able to turn for expert technical or professional knowledge. The aforementioned psychiatric consultant who might be in Bethel for certain days each week, for example, would be a resource for the Aide who needs help in understanding the dynamics of and how to cope with problems associated with alcoholism or accident proneness or emotional disorders in adolescents. Such a "technical" consultant might be a specialist in knowing which resources in the State might be called

upon by an Aide to assist in the development of a cooperative or a particular product, or the marketability of contemplated handcraft. The latter kind of a consultant, in effect, would be the expert on State and federal resources for technical or special purposes, able to extrapolate from the maze of competitive organizations and departments and bridge the distance to a particular service required by the Aide in the pursuit of a community development activity.

Coordination

The latter consultative role points to the importance of administrative intervention toward inter-agency coordination. Certainly some coordinating activities must remain with the Aide at the village level, and other coordinating activities must rest with the Bethel District Representative. But the data revealed a multiplicity of State and federal agencies with functions touching the lives of the villagers, sometimes in direct competition with each other and sometimes going their separate ways without seeming awareness of each other. The RASS goal of coordination could not be achieved for a variety of reasons. One was the factor of time. This became paramount. There was not time to permit even an orderly examination of, let alone coping with, the variety of elements that arise when more than one organization has purposes centering on the same target group. For example, competing vested interests were operating among the organizations. They represented different levels of authority and different auspices: federal, State, or local--and different departments within federal or State levels of government. Their perspective differed as to the overall goal to be achieved and how this goal should be pursued. The sheer length of time necessary to interest and involve others in meeting around a particular subject, arranging and preparing for

an initial meeting or conference as well as follow-up meeting, explaining potentials for change, jockeying for power or supremacy in implementing a plan or a program, was inevitably considerable irrespective of the mutual appeal of the goal which brings the group together. When the tremendous problems of space, transportation, and communication (physical and psychological) also enter the picture, time moves in "slow-motion."

It is evident that coordination must occur at a top level in the administrative structure of DPW in order to mobilize the force required to break through or cross the differences noted above and, if necessary, to insist on joint examination of common goals and appropriate divisions of responsibility for achieving them. Of course, such administrative efforts to effect coordination will flounder unless the separate purposes and special expertise of the several agencies are recognized and each has assurance that their differences would be preserved, not blurred. The evaluative research effort on several occasions found the irrefutable connection between other agencies' resistance to the RASS purposes and what these agencies regarded as derogation of their role and expertise.

Some movement toward achieving coordination is compellingly necessary if there is to be an effective agency resource network available both for direct services and community development activities at the village level. Clearly, this cannot be developed by the Aides. It is not possible, for example, for the Human Services Aide at the village level to raise question with the Bureau of Indian Affairs as to why Natives are being recruited and trained to be social service aides in the same villages in which Human Services Aides already are functioning; the number of villages to be served and the scarcity of trained paraprofessional personnel to provide services suggests that it is both uneconomical and inefficient for an agency

competitively to create similar positions in the same few villages already being served by the scarce human services manpower. Similarly, it is not easy for Aides at the village level to know which of many State or federal agencies might be utilized in the prosecution of a particular community development activity in a village; the multiplicity of such specialized organizations with their overlapping and discrete functions requires a centralized resource within DPW to coordinate not the organizations, but the information about them, so that the information can be put to use by those who are engaged in specific village tasks. The repeated efforts of HSAs at the village level to procure medical reports from hospitals in Bethel or Anchorage in order to proceed with the processing of an application or meeting of an aid or service need of a village family points to the importance of someone at a higher level in the agency interceding with the hospital personnel to find a way in which the required information, which will benefit the patient as well as the family, can be expedited for the Aide's use.

Continuing Data Collection and Use

The kinds of consultation required by Aides, the areas in which the several forms and objectives of coordination are indicated, the bases for administrative decisions concerning workload and workflow, trends in village problems and resource needs--these must be identified from a continuous flow of statistical and other data which can be administratively translated into planning and programming. Except for the research reports prepared by Human Services Aides, and statistics concerning cases aided, there was a dearth of data for administrative use. The data analysis and the findings obtained pointed to the importance of developing a systematic means for collecting information that would provide understanding of family composition in the villages (how many fatherless families are there? how many teenage children are not

attending school?), the kinds of incapacities or disabilities facing heads of households. These kinds of data are necessary not alone to work with families coping with crises situations or later stress, but also for developing resources that will provide for individual families as well as a community approach to solving community social problems. As the delivery of services to non-aided families increases, it becomes correspondingly more important to know the volume and flow as well as nature of such requests for service in order to plan for the organization of services. An orderly system of data gathering and analysis is an essential tool in any program of social welfare; it takes on added importance in remote communities where administrative personnel cannot be alert to trends and changes, problems and needs either impressionistically or by inspection.

5

Outcomes and Generalizability

The evaluative research of the RASS demonstration produced a number of findings that have meaning not only for the organization and delivery of services in rural Alaska; they also have import in terms of the methods used and some of the questions that emerged for the provision of services by indigenous personnel in other communities in the United States, whether physically remote or ghetto enclaves in an urban center. For example, it is clear that not all of the Human Services Aides were able to comprehend quickly; cognition they certainly had, but they seemed not to use it to develop or tackle ideas. Is this true of other groups of people who must concentrate all their energy on the most elementary tasks of survival? What is the significance for identifying effective and reachable goals, planning the measures for reaching them, and putting them into effect? To what extent is it possible for the content and modalities of learning and

teaching of indigenous personnel in dealing with community development to reflect, to demonstrate, and to bring to consciousness the content and ways of work appropriate for use by human services workers in their own work in their own communities? What kind of supervision and/or consultation will enable Human Services Aides to use their own strengths and talents and those of their villages in the service of choosing what they want to use from the white man's culture and making that portion their own in their own ways? What motivations and prospects of reward for the human services worker and the clientele he serves are inherent in his direct and community service activities?

While not all aspects of the demonstration in service delivery in rural Alaska achieved the several goals of the project, there is no doubt of its overall effectiveness and major contribution to the lives and villages in the rural segment of Alaska encompassed by the RASS project. The project demonstrated that direct services can be developed by Natives of these far-flung isolated communities, and that such Natives can also undertake and effectively carry through community development projects. The demonstration pinpointed some of the factors that impeded the delivery of direct aid and services and of community development; it also pointed up factors that can facilitate the productive and constructive delivery of services and prosecution of community development undertakings. These factors of individual and community attitudes, of resources and opportunities, of value systems superimposed on other culturally-derived value systems are to be found not only in the RASS villages, but in other communities which lack a solid economic foundation and whose population is exposed to various noxious elements.

Something else was demonstrated; namely, a project like RASS is a valuable, vital, and viable mechanism for experimenting with new ways of organizing and

delivering services, and for evaluating such a demonstration-experiment in order to procure from the experience data significant in planning and social policy development. To this end, the funding of the RASS demonstration by Section 1115 grant under the Social Security Act fulfilled an important purpose not only for rural areas in Alaska, but for other regions in the United States where organization and delivery of services cannot follow traditional patterns and do not fit the same experimental models that can be tried out in other kinds of communities. The Rural Areas Social Services Project opened the door for service and community development in remote Alaskan villages; it also opened windows through which to view more clearly new horizons in human services.

CHAPTER

VII

RECOMMENDATIONS

> What will be done with what you find out?
> More promises? Or will things be better?[1]

The evaluative research on the Alaska Rural Areas Social Services Project yielded several orders of findings and provided a wealth of learnings useful in planning, organizing, and delivering services in remote rural areas. Some of the findings disclosed factors that impeded successful achievement of some parts or dimensions of the demonstration. Given some other variables or differently formed clusters of variables in the course of the RASS demonstration, certain of these factors might have affected service and community development actions more positively.

Some of the findings identified elements and conditions that favored the achievement of the RASS purposes. Again, given different combinations of the variables that existed--or were absent--the outcomes also might have been anticipated to be different. In other words, whether the findings obtained from the analysis of the data were positive or not, each merits careful consideration in the context of the total constellation of elements inherent in or associated with an undertaking that aims to utilize indigenous untrained manpower to meet social needs of individuals and communities not readily accessible to centers of public welfare administration or delivery of aid or other services to meet social need.

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[1] Interview with council president in a Kuskokwim River village, July 26, 1969.

A number of recommendations can be inferred from these findings. Only a few have been selected for presentation here. They are proffered not only because of their instrinsic import for public welfare administration, but also because they have some capability for relatively early realization. The rationale for each is supported in the body of this evaluation report. Some general recommendations are presented first, followed by recommendation pertaining to each of the several evaluation areas discussed in the text of the report.

It should be noted that these recommendations are predicated upon a major overall finding from the evaluation research; namely, the demonstration was successful. Moreover, in large measure this success derived from the quality of effort and interest invested in the project by the indigenous Native Aides and other DPW personnel associated with the RASS demonstration. The commendation which they deserve stands apart from the recommendations that follow.

General Recommendations

1. An integrated human services model should be the objective of the Division of Public Welfare, with the focus on direct and community development services, encompassing social need of families and of villages irrespective of whether economic assistance is required.[1]

2. The Rural Areas Social Services program should be extended to other villages in the Kuskokwim-Yukon region and beyond this area to other rural Native communities.

3. Telephone or radio-telephone communication is an urgent need if human services are to be productive, and appropriate equipment should be installed as soon as possible at least in the villages serving as duty stations for Human Service Aides so that they can report and consult on situations requiring attention before there is irreparable or costly damage to the health and welfare of village families.

Direct Services and Community Development

4. To use efficiently and economically the scarce manpower to meet the cultural, literacy, economic and social needs in the remote Native rural communities measures should be initiated directed toward:

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[1]See Recommendations 4 and 6.

a. Waiving separation of services from financial assistance in the remote rural communities;

b. Contracting (or otherwise arranging) with the Bureau of Indian Affairs to place with Human Services Aides the distribution--and appropriate associated accountability--responsibility for BIA General Relief in those villages which have neither a local BIA social worker nor a viable contract with the village council for dissemination of BIA General Relief funds;

c. Developing an arrangement with the Social Security Administration whereby the Human Services Aide can officially represent that agency in connection with income maintenance programs under its auspices, DPW to be reimbursed for time and other expenditures associated with this task in remote villages infrequently or irregularly visited by other representatives of the federal organization;

d. Clarifying the respective responsibilities of BIA and DPW in meeting aid and social service needs of villagers, particularly with regard to protective services for children;

e. Facilitating responses from Anchorage and Bethel hospitals to queries from Aides for information required for determination of medical eligibility for assistance and/or planning with families around the illness or disability of a father member either in the village home or a distant hospital facility.

5. To facilitate more effective coping with pervasive social and behavioral problems that affect level of family and/or village functioning,

a. Psychiatric services should be made available in Bethel on a regularly scheduled (publicized) basis for consultation to Human Services Aides and for diagnosis and/or indicated treatment for villagers;

b. A centralized coordinating service should be developed (possibly with demonstration grant funds) to

--explore and identify resources available among the multiplicity of specialized State and/or federal programs (some obscure, some overlapping, some with special requirements for use) that may be called upon for use in the community development aspects of human services,

--consult with Human Services Aides about the availability and utilization of such resources in community development activities centering on economic and/or social problems.

6. Information currently known to RASS and other DPW personnel should be pooled to determine which villages have little or no potential for responsiveness to community development efforts, in order to

a. permit differential assignments of indigenous Native Aides so that the direct services Aide model can be concentrated in such villages and

b. develop a "roving" or traveling" community development model (or combination of direct and community development services model) to supply Aides in such villages with consultative services when opportunity for a community approach to a social problem arises (or can be stimulated) in these villages.

Supervision and Administration

7. Working conditions for village Aides should provide for a private work place and a means for verbal communication with other villages as well as with Bethel.

8. Provision should be considered for administrative flexibility in the handling of certain problems and circumstances unique to village life and patterns, such as

   a. daily working hours that accommodate the irregularity of Native use of time (for example, late evening requests) within a normal number of hours of work per week;

   b. enabling Aides in selected pre-determined instances of community development to communicate directly with government and other officials.

9. Continuous data collection and analysis should be instituted with the assistance of the Research Director for the Department of Health and Welfare in order to facilitate human services workload planning and control, resource development, and staff development in relation to human services personnel and the family and village problems they encounter.

10. Coordination measures among organizations, especially public, should be instituted at the higher levels in the DPW structure toward assessing areas of common concern and systematic ways for effective collaboration, cooperation, and coordination designed to achieve the human services objectives among rural Native villages.

11. A consultation instead of supervision model should be developed for working with Human Services Aides, whereby

   a. administrative aspects of supervision would be supplied by the District Office, and

   b. consultation on case handling or community development would be the responsibility of District personnel possessing appropriate skills and knowledge, with supplementation in special areas (consultation regarding foster care, dynamics of behavior or others) supplied by designated staff development or other experts in DPW, including Human Services Aides.

12. Total responsibility and accountability for the village workload (individual aided cases, non-aided cases, and community activities) should be delegated to the Human Services Aide who should be appraised of all actions taken or decisions made elsewhere that affect the village work.

Recruitment, Training, Staff Development

13. Recruitment measures and processes should take into account duties human services workers would be expected to undertake and that place heavy emphasis on written communication, community involvement, and independence of judgment and action.

14. Training of newly-recruited Human Services Aides should be planned and conducted within DPW under the direction of the Staff Development Supervisor, with

    a. planned and selective participation with experts outside DPW;

    b. consideration of time, pace, and location of training conductive to maximum effectiveness in using the learning patterns of Natives away from home;

    c. special emphasis on the inter-relatedness of the training with the life styles of villages and the special social and economic conditions of the village environment;

    d. effort directed toward involvement of the Aides in sharing their perceptions and experiences, thereby adding insights and promoting identification with program goals;

    e. utilization in a teaching/consultation role the Human Services Aides who have successfully demonstrated expertise in meeting village family and community needs.

15. Continuing staff development should

    a. provide human services workers with special training in consultation (giving and using) to enable them

        --to work in villages new to RASS, assaying needs and demonstrating the direct and community services roles of human services workers,

        --to supply consultative services to already operating Aides or to new recruits who might benefit from such support from other Natives,

        --to consult effectively with others in their villages who might utilize such services;

    b. direct special attention to the recognition of community social problems and to a public health approach for coping with these.

Coordination

16. At the village level, steps should be instituted, where appropriate, for regular conferences (group and individual) with paraprofessional and professional personnel for the purpose of joint examination of common goals and objectives and effective collaborative approaches to these--especially, initially, health aides, BIA social service aides, nurse aides.

17. At the administrative level: until such time as a Governor's Advisory Committee on Policy can be reinstituted to counsel with DPW about needs, problems, resources, and services in rural areas and to serve as a coordinating mechanism, the Association of Village Council Presidents should be invited to form a committee of representative presidents to meet when the Association convenes for other purposes and to consider with DPW administration matters of concern in community and resource development among the RASS villages.

APPENDIX A

Tables and Charts

Table	
6	Population Receiving General Assistance and Changes in Public Assistance Caseload 1969-1970
7	RASS Villages, Primarily Indian or Indian-Eskimo
8	RASS Villages, by Religions Practiced in Duty Stations and Selected Other Villages
9	Number of Case Action Reports (R-1) by Human Services Aides
10	Community Development Reports (R-2) Submitted by Human Services Aide, by Village
11	Classification of Needs and Problems Entered on Case Service Action Reports (R-1), by Service Linkage
12	Service Actions in Ascending Order of Complexity, by Service Linkage

Chart	
I	Ranking of HSA Tasks in Ascending Order of Difficulty
II	Ranking of HSA Tasks in Ascending Order of Difficulty by Eleven Aides

Table 6 POPULATION RECEIVING GENERAL ASSISTANCE AND CHANGES IN PUBLIC ASSISTANCE CASELOAD 1969 - 1970
BY VILLAGE, IN KUSKOKWIM AND YUKON AREAS

Village Name	Population [a]	G.R. Caseload	Public Assistance 1969[b]					Public Assistance 1970					Percentage Change
			OAA	AB	AD	AFDC	Total	OAA	AB	AD	AFDC	Total	
	K U		S	K		O	K W	I		M			
Akiachak	310	5	9	-	2	10	21	8	-	4	10	22	+ 4.8
Akiak	155	4	4	2	3	5	14	5	2	3	6	16	+ 14.3
Aniak	240	29	7	-	3	11	21	7	-	3	11	21	0
Bethel	1900	382	31	1	20	48	100	38	2	25	71	136	+ 36.0
Chefornak	146	19	3	-	2	3	8	1	-	2	3	6	- 25.0
Crooked Creek	113	9	1	-	-	6	7	2	-	-	8	10	+ 42.8
Eek	200	40	8	-	-	3	11	9	-	1	5	11	- 0
Georgetown	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-
Kalskag	152	15	2	-	3	4	9	5	-	6	3	14	+ 55.5
Kasigluk	244	16	9	2	4	9	24	9	2	3	7	21	- 12.5
Kipnuk	267	15	5	1	3	9	18	7	1	3	12	23	+ 27.7
Kwethluk	375	42	6	2	5	11	24	8	2	6	15	31	+ 29.2
Kwigillingok	363	26	4	-	-	2	6	4	-	-	2	6	0
Lower Kalskag	122	4	5	-	1	8	14	6	-	1	10	17	+ 21.4
Lime Village	23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Little Russian Mission	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Napakiak	254	19	3	1	7	15	26	5	-	6	15	26	0
Napaskiak	125	7	8	1	3	6	18	7	1	4	8	20	+ 11.1
Newtok	135	16	1	7	-	4	5	-	-	1	4	5	- 0
Nightmute	-	27	6	1	-	3	10	5	1	-	4	10	0
Nunapitchuk	405	35	11	1	4	6	22	12	1	5	5	23	+ 4.5
Oscarville	-	3	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	1	0
Quinhagok	?	36	5	-	1	1	7	4	-	1	3	8	+ 14.3
Red Devil	152	3	-	-	1	1	2	-	-	1	1	2	0
Sleetmute	149	5	2	-	-	10	12	3	-	-	9	12	0
Stony River	117	11	3	-	-	8	11	3	-	-	8	11	0
Toksook Bay	180	27	1	-	5	9	15	1	-	6	11	18	- 6.7
Tuluksak	160	16	7	1	-	7	15	6	1	1	6	14	- 6.7
Tuntutuliak	165	18	3	-	1	6	10	2	-	1	8	11	+ 10.0
Tununak	236	32	7	1	2	4	14	8	1	4	9	15	+ 15.7
Kongiganak	175	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	-	-	2	4	+100.0

(Continued next page)

TABLE 6 (Continued)

Village Name	Population[a]	V.R. Caseload	Public Assistance 1969[b] OAA	AB	AD	AFDC	Total	Public Assistance 1970 OAA	AB	AD	AFDC	Total	Percentage Change
			Y	U	K	O	N						
Alakanuk	365	19	9	-	3	12	24	12	-	2	12	26	+ 8.3
Anvik	120	-	1	-	2	3	6	1	-	3	2	6	0
Chevak	380	36	4	-	1	19	24	2	-	2	19	23	- 4.2
Emmcnak	375	19	6	-	1	9	16	5	-	4	8	17	+ 6.2
Fortuna Ledge	170	5	5	1	-	4	10	3	1	1	4	10	0
Goodnews Bay	185	14	3	2	2	7	14	4	1	3	8	14	0
Grayling	150	16	5	-	-	6	11	5	-	-	7	12	+ 9.1
Hamilton	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Holy Cross	235	22	6	-	-	5	11	6	-	2	6	14	+ 27.3
Hooper Bay	540	42	11	-	2	13	26	11	-	1	14	26	0
Kotlik	160	9	5	-	2	1	8	6	-	2	2	10	+ 25.0
Marshall	166	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mekoryuk	266	16	8	-	-	8	16	9	-	-	10	19	+ 18.9
Mountain Village	352	24	9	1	2	6	18	10	-	2	7	19	+ 5.6
Pilot Station	260	11	9	-	-	5	14	10	-	-	4	14	0
Pitka's Point	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	2	+150.0
Platinum	43	-	1	-	-	1	2	1	-	1	3	5	+ 14.3
Russian Mission	128	9	5	1	4	3	13	-	-	-	-	-	-
Scammon Bay	163	21	7	-	-	3	10	7	-	-	4	11	+ 10.0
Shageluk	175	16	8	-	1	8	17	8	-	2	6	17	0
Sheldon's Point	111	10	3	-	1	1	5	2	-	2	3	7	+ 40.0
St. Mary's	295	16	9	2	3	8	22	12	1	1	14	28	+ 27.3

a As of 1969.

b Sources: Alaska, Division of Public Welfare, Dept. of Health and Welfare, Location and Total Amounts of Active Cases, October 1969, District 36-Bethel.

Table 7

RASS Villages, Primarily Indian or Indian-Eskimo[a]

Ethnicity	Total	Group K	Group Y
Indian	9	Anvik Crooked Creek Georgetown Lime Village Red Devil Sleetmute Stony River	Grayling Shagelak
Indian-Eskimo	6	Aniak kalskag Little Russian Mission Lower Kalskag	Holy Cross Russian Mission
Totals	15	11	4

[a]All others are Eskimo.

Table 8

RASS Villages, by Religions Practiced
in Duty Stations and Selected Other Villages[a]

Village	Russian Orthodox	Roman Catholic	Moravian	Baptist	Other
Group K					
Akiachuk	x				
Bethel	x	x	x	x	x[b]
Crooked Creek	x				
Georgetown	x				
Kasigluk	x		x		
Kwethluk	x		x		
Lower Kalskag	x	x[c]			
Kwingillinghok	x				
Napakiak			x		
Napasiak	x				
Nunapitchuk	x		x		
Toksook Bay		x			
Tuntutuliak	x		x		
Group Y					
Alaknuck		x			x[d]
Chevak		x			
Emmonak		x		x	
Grayling					x[e]
Holy Cross		x			
Hooper Bay	x				
Mekoryak					x[f]
Mountain Village		x			
Pilot Station	x	x			
Totals	13	9	6	2	5

[a] Included among village survey made by HSA
[b] Pentecostal
[c] Two village families
[d] Assembly of God
[e] Episcipal and Artic Bible Church
[f] Swedish Covenant
[g] Evangelical and Swedish Covenant

TABLE 9

NUMBER OF CASE ACTION REPORTS[a] (R-1)
BY HUMAN SERVICES AIDE

Aide	Number of Reports								
	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 or more
01	22	20	2						
02	49	34	8	7					
03	31	25	5	1					
04	34	23	6	4	1				
05	67	59	8						
06	41	32	8	1					
07	22	16	6						
08	85	53	24	7	-	1			
09	78	59	11	5	2	-	1		
10	29	18	6	5					
11	51	43	6	2					
12	90	49	19	14	3	1	2	-	2
13	50	37	11	2					
14	65	38	13	5	2	3	3	1	
15	29	25	4						
16	16	15	1						
17	19	17	2						
18	65	51	6	4	3	-	1		
19	20	20							
Total	863	634	146	57	11	5	7	1	2

[a] Because some R-1s reported several contacts and, sometimes, contacts with more than one client, the figures shown here are by number of reports irrespective of number of persons or contacts for report.

TABLE 10

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT REPORT (R-2) SUBMITTED
BY HUMAN SERVICES AIDES, BY VILLAGE

Village Group K	No. R-2	Village Group Y	No. R-2
Akiachak	1	Alakanuk	4
Akiak	-	Anvik	-
Aniak	-	Chevak	-
Bethel	10	Emmonak	7
Chefornak	-	Fortuna Ledge	-
Crooked Creek	2	Grayling	-
Eek	1	Hamilton	-
Georgetown	2	Holy Cross	2
Kasigluk	5	Hooper Bay	6
Kipnuk	-	Kotlik	-
Kwethluk	13	Marshall	-
Kwigillingok	2	Mekoryuk	3
Lime Village	1	Mountain Village	1
Little Russian Mission	-	Pilot Station	1
Lower Kalskag	-	Pitka's Point	-
Napakiak	-	Russian Mission	2
Napaskiak	1	Scammon Bay	-
Newtok	9	Shageluk	3
Nightmute	8	Sheldon's Point	4
Nunapitchuk	2	St. Mary's	-
Oscarville	-		
Quinhagok	2		
Red Devel	-		
Sleetmute	1		
Stony River	3		
Toksook Bay	45		
Tuluksak	-		
Tuntutuliak	2		
Tununak	14		
Upper Kalskag	-		
Total: 30	124	20	53

TABLE 11

CLASSIFICATION OF NEEDS AND PROBLEMS ENTERED ON CASE SERVICE ACTION REPORTS (R-1), BY SERVICE LINKAGE

Needs/Problems Category	Service Linkage							
	Total		Single Objectives		Episode of Service		Sequential Service	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Unemployment/ Underemployment	56	17.2	35	28.0	19	11.8	2	4.9
Health/Accident Hazards Requiring Treatment	97	29.5	26	20.8	58	36.0	13	31.7
Physical Illness	42	12.7	10	8.0	28	17.4	4	9.8
Accident, Injury	14	4.3	6	4.8	7	4.3	1	2.4
Driving	32	9.8	8	6.4	18	11.2	6	14.6
Other	9	2.7	2	1.6	5	3.1	2	4.9
Children:	88	26.9	35	28.0	38	23.6	15	36.5
Abused, Neglected	17	5.2	6	4.8	6	3.7	5	12.2
Remove from Home	3	0.9	1	0.8	1	0.6	1	2.4
Adoption/ Guardianship	55	16.8	21	16.8	27	16.8	7	17.1
Return to Home	6	1.9	2	1.6	3	1.9	1	2.4
Other	7	2.1	5	4.0	1	0.6	1	2.4
Housing:	32	9.8	9	7.2	21	13.1	2	4.9
None Availabe	4	1.2	2	1.6	2	1.3	0	-
Inadquate	25	7.7	5	4.0	18	11.2	2	4.9
Other	3	0.9	2	1.6	1	0.6	0	-
Income Needed	32	9.8	10	8.0	20	12.4	2	4.9
Unemployability	13	4.0	4	3.2	8	5.0	1	2.4
Mismanagement of money	13	4.0	5	4.0	7	4.3	1	2.5
Other	6	1.8	1	0.8	5	3.1	-	-

(Continued next page)

TABLE 11 (Continued)

Needs/Problems Category	Service Linkage							
	Total		Single Objective		Episode of Service		Sequential Service	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Educational Obstacles: No School Children	22	6.8	10	8.0	5	3.1	7	17.1
No Job Training Resources Adults	11	3.4	3	2.4	3	1.8	5	12.2
	11	3.4	7	5.6	2	1.3	2	4.9
Total	329	100.0%	125	100.0%	161	100.0%	41	100.0%

[a] Percentage rounded off.

TABLE 12

SERVICE ACTIONS IN ASCENDING ORDER OF COMPLEXITY, BY SERVICE LINKAGE

Complexity of Service Actions	Number of Action		Service Linkage					
			Single Objective		[illegible] Code of Service		Sequential Service	
			#	%	#	%	#	%
1. Read, write, translate, or fill in form	80	100.0	74	92.5	6	7.5		-
2. Help complete Eligibility Procedure	322		267	82.9	55	17.1		-
3. Assess financial situation & clt eligibility for public assistance	3		2	66.7	1	33.3		-
4. Answer client request for Welfare	70		54	77.2	16	22.8		-
5. Friendly visit to family to get to know them	10		9	90.0	1	10.0		-
6. Monitor fam & its problems	151		75	49.7	62	41.0	14	9.3
7. Referral no Follow-up	116		43	37.1	71	61.2	2	1.7
8. Contact other - Collatoral	8		2	25.0	6	75.0		-
9. Explore sources of help	15		3	20.0	8	53.3	4	26.7
10. Refer-complex, with Follow-up	35		8	22.8	15	42.9	12	34.3
11. Discuss & warn re: problem behavior	23		10	43.5	8	34.8	5	21.7

(Continued next page)

TABLE 12 (Continued)

SERVICE ACTIONS IN ASCENDING ORDER OF COMPLEXITY, BY SERVICE LINKAGE

Complexity of Service Actions	Service Linkage							
	Total		Single Objective		Episode of Service		Sequential Service	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
12. Plan & deliver continuing follow-up serv.	10	100	2	20.0	5	50.0	3	30.0
13. Assess problems plan help, wrte evaluation				-		-		-
14. Explain prob. solutions & best solution	1			-	1	100.0		-
15. Family conference re :problem	2		1	50.0		-	1	50.0
16. Identify common class prob in village, refer to DPW for act.	1		1	100.0		-		-
17. Identify common class prob in village, initiate remedial action thru villagers	8		6	75.0	2	25.0		-
Total	855	100.0%	557	65.1%	257	30.1%	41	4.8%

CHART I

RANKING OF HSA TASKS IN ASCENDING ORDER OF DIFFICULTY

Task	Group 1 Research Experts		Group 2 HSA (11)		Group 3 Field Experts (3)		Group 4 Administrator (3)	
	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty
1. Read, write, translate, or fill in form	1.6	1	3.4	3	4.7	4	4.0	2
2. Help complete eligibility procedure	4.6	4	3.3	2	4.3	3	2.3	1
3. Assess financial situation & clt eligibility for public assistance	4.2	3	6.0	10	6.3	8	5.3*	3.5*
4. Answer client request for welf.	3.8	2	5.4	9	5.7	6	5.3*	3.5*
5. Friendly visit to family to get to know them	5.4	5	2.2	1	3.3	1	5.7	6
6. Monitor family & its problems	7.6	8	4.3	5	5.0	5	9.0	9
7. Referral- no follow-up	6.6	7	5.0	7	3.7	2	6.0	7
8. Contact other- collatoral	6.2	6	4.2	4	6.0	7	5.7	5

* Ties.

(Continued next page)

CHART I (Continued)

	Task	Group 1 Research Experts		Group 2 HSA (11)		Group 3 Field Experts (3)		Group 4 Administrators (3)	
		Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty
9.	Explore sources of help	9.0	9	7.3	13	7.7	9	7.7	8
10.	Refer-complex with follow-up	10.2	10.5*	6.7	12	10.0	10	10.0	11
11.	Discuss & warn re: problem behavior	10.6	12	7.4	14.5*	11.3	12	12.0*	12.5*
12.	Plan & deliver continuing follow-up service	10.2	10.5*	4.4	6	12.0	13	12.3*	14.5*
13.	Assess problems plan help, write evaluation	13	13	7.4	14.5*	12.7	14	9.3	10
14.	Explain prob. solutions & find best solution	13.8*	14.5	5.3	8	11.0	11	12.0*	12.5*
15.	Family conference re: problem	13.8*	14.5	6.4	11	15	16	12.7	16

* Ties.

(Continued next page)

CHART I (Continued)

Task	Group 1 Research Experts		Group 2 HSA (11)		Group 3 Field Experts (3)		Group 4 Administrator (3)	
	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty	Average Rank	Index of Difficulty
16. Identify common class problem in village, refer to DPW for action	14.8	16	9.0	16	14	15	12.3*	14.5*
17. Identify common class problem in village, initiate remedial action through villagers	16.6	17	10.5	17	16	17	13.0	17.0

* Ties.

CHART II

RANKING OF HSA TASKS IN ASCENDING ORDER OF DIFFICULTY
BY ELEVEN AIDES

Task	Ranking Average	B	C	D	A	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
1. Read, write, translate, or fill in form	3.36	3	1	3	1	6	1	3	1	1	13	2
2. Help complete eligibility procedure	3.27	1	8	1	2	2	1	4	1	2	11	3
3. Assess financial situation & clt eligibility for public assistance	6.00	10	3	4	12	1	1	11	2	10	10	2
4. Answer client request for Welfare	5.45	4	1	11	5	4	1	10	2	6	12	4
5. Friendly visit to family to get to know them	2.18	1	2	2	8	3	1	1	3	1	1	1
6. Monitor family & its problems	4.36	2	1	2	17	3	1	1	2	14	4	1
7. Referral no follow-up	5.00	5	7	4	3	11	1	14	1	4	2	3
8. Contact other collatoral	4.18	2	1	3	7	5	3	2	2	17	3	1
9. Explore sources of help	7.27	11	5	10	9	5	2	9	1	10	8	4
10. Refer-complex, with follow-up	6.72	1	2	8	4	8	2	16	2	15	9	7
11. Discuss & warn re: problem behavior	7.36	1	2	7	14	12	1	6	2	9	17	10

(Continued next page)

CHART II (Continued)

Task	Ranking Average	B	C	D	A	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
12. Plan & deliver continuing follow-up services	4.45	1	2	1	10	9	1	5	1	7	7	5
13. Assess problems, plan help, write evaluation	7.36	1	3	9	11	7	1	12	2	12	14	9
14. Explain problem solut & best solution	5.27	1	1	5	13	10	1	8	3	5	5	6
15. Family conference re: problems	6.36	6	1	6	6	14	2	7	3	11	6	8
16. Identify common class problem in village, refer to DPW for act	9.00	9	4	13	16	7	1	13	2	8	15	11
17. Identify common class problem in village, initiate remedial act through villagers	10.54	12	6	12	15	13	2	13	3	13	16	11

APPENDIX B

Forms for Data Collection

R-1 Case Action Service Report

R-2 Community Action Report

R-3 Coordinators Report

Village Baseline Survey

Client Interview Schedule

Erratum: Appendix B

R6-1 and R6-2, part of Interview Schedule (R-5) were inadvertantly placed following page 3 of Village Survey.

CASE REPORT
Service Actions

Date

Case name or names | Case No. | Village | Name of Aide

1. Why did you talk to this person or family? What was their problem? What did they want you to do?

2. What did you do to help them after you talked to them? Why did you decide to do this?

3. What was the outcome of this contact with this person or family?

4. Did you refer this family to someone? To whom? For what?

5. Are you going to follow up? What will you do?

(Attach sheet if more space is needed)

Problem
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
Services
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

Form R1

OTHER CASE ACTIONS ACCOMPLISHED
FOR THIS CASE

1. Check Program or programs where client is already a recipient:

____Old Age Assistance
____Aid to Blind
____Aid to Perm. & Totally Disabled
____GR Assistance
____AFDC
____AFDC Foster
____Work Incentive
____Food Stamp
____Adoption Home
____Foster Home
____Juvenile Court
____Out of town inquiry

2. Check work done:

____Discussed application and eligibility rules
____Assist with declaration
____Assist with recertification
____Completed social study
____Explain Budget
____Notify District Office of change in situation

3. Check:

____Explained Food Stamp Program
____Referred to Food Stamp Agent
____Referred to WIN

Form R1-2

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT REPORT
(Make one for each contact
or meeting or project)

Date

Village

Name of Aide

1. Who did you see? What did you do? What Happened? What did not happen that was needed? Why?

2. Organized community meetings - (purpose, where held, what happened?)

3. Community Project Reports - (What is the project, how are you going about it, what progress have you made explain how the village people are participating: who else is involved?)

Form R2

RASS PROJECT COORDINATOR REPORT
SERVICE ACTIONS

NAME: _____ CASE #: PROGRAM: VILLAGE: DATE: ___

1. TO: _____, Human Service Aide

FROM: _____, Coordinator

RE: Your Service Action Report of _____
Date

Coordinator's Signature_____

2. Coordinator's Assessment:

I. This Client's main problem is_____
_____

II. HSA services were provided in the form of_____
_____

III. Additional Services required:
A._____
B._____
C._____

IV. Assistance from the District Office staff will be needed because_____
_____
_____
_____

V. _____
_____

V. Steps suggested to HSA (Attach copy of memo or instructions to Aides_____
_____

Form R3

VILLAGE SURVEY

_____

(village name)

Completed by_____

(name of Human Services Aide)

_____

(date)

The observations and data included in this survey provide an important base-line and highlight typical situaitons, problems, and client characteristics which were found during an early phase of the Rural Alaska Social Services Project. At a later phase of observation, this base-line will help us to see how far each village has changed and progressed.

12-1-69

PICTURES OF THE VILLAGE.

If possible, please include pictures which show:

1. The whole village.
2. People of the village council.
3. Other people who meet in groups to plan or do some work which will benefit a villager or the whole village.
4. Youth who meet in groups or for work or fun.
5. A harmful condition or problem in the village which you think the people may want to change.
6. Other pictures of important or interesting parts of the village.

Your camera will take 12 pictures. For each picture you take, please describe what it shows or who it includes.

Picture	Description
1.	_____
2.	_____
3.	_____
4.	_____
5.	_____
6.	_____
7.	_____
8.	_____
9.	_____
10.	_____
11.	_____
12.	_____

VILLAGE HISTORY

Ask older or well-informed villagers about the early history of village; how people survived in earlier years; how village life has changed since then. Try to include reasons for change. Has population changed? What events were important to economic survival of villagers in earlier times; have there been changes in supply of game, fish, birds? What other changes affected history of village? How is history of village different or like that of other villages?

CODE NO.___

RURAL ALASKA SOCIAL SERVICES REPORT
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What did you talk about with---(name of Aide)?

   1A. Did he/she help you? ☐ YES ☐ NO

   1B. What did he/she do that helped?

2. Did---(name of Aide) come to your house? ☐ YES ☐ NO

   Did you go to find---(name of Aide)? ☐ YES ☐ NO

3. Did you want---(Aide)---to do something that he/she did not do? ☐ YES ☐ NO

   IF YES, What did you want?

   Why couldn't the Aide do it?

   Did the Aide do something you did not want him/her to do? ☐ YES ☐ NO

   IF YES, What did he do?

   Why did he do this?

   What happened next?

Form R6-1

CODE NO.____

4. Did the Aide do anything to help the whole village?

   What did he do?

5. What else could he do to help the village and the families who live here?

6. How long did you know---(Aide)? (Show number of years if possible).

   Are you related to him/her?

   (Are you his cousin, uncle, etc.)?

ECONOMIC PROBLEMS WHICH FACE ALL OR MOST OF THE VILLAGERS

(try to make some observations for each question of this outline)

What are the main problems of economic survival for villagers? (What is the cause of problems? Are they old or new problems? Are they getting better or worse?)

Describe a family that found a way to overcome problems.

Describe another family where problems cause extreme hardship.

Describe any cooperative group effort of villagers to deal with these economic problems. (Have there been any cooperative work projects? Have the villagers cooperated to secure land or property rights?

How does the H.S.A. assist these cooperative efforts?

What difference did this assistance make in these efforts?

What sources of aid from outside village did H.S.A. use?

What sources of aid did H.S.A. need but could not secure?

SOCIAL PROBLEMS WHICH FACE ALL OR MOST OF THE VILLAGERS

(Try to make some observations for each question of this outline)

What main social problems do you observe in the village?

What groups of people are affected mostly by these problems? (Mostly old villagers? Young Adults? Children? Or Infants? Mostly families or individuals? How many are affected?)

Describe how a family had success in meeting these problems. (What did they do to bring success?)

Describe a family where their problems cause extreme difficulty for family members or danger for children.

Describe village efforts to help people deal with these problems. (Who helps - kinfold, an individual, another family, cooperative village groups, a village agency? What happened as a result of their effort?)

How does H.S.A. assist in these efforts?
(Tell what you did, why you did this, and the result?)

What sources of help outside the village did H.S.A. use? (Explain what you did to help family use an outside agency?)

AGENCIES IN THE VILLAGE

Churches

1. Describe the denomination of each church in village.

2. For each church, describe what economic or social service activity it provides.

3. What age groups are reached by each church?

4. Are the efforts of each church becoming more or less important to the welfare of the villagers?

5. How do you work with church representatives or officials?

School

Describe the school - how large, how many children, how you work with the teacher or teacher aide.

Village agencies

Describe the village council, Bureau of Indian Affairs, and other agencies serving the village. Tell what each does in the village and how you work with it. Include health aides, etc.

MOST SERIOUS VILLAGE NEEDS

Describe the most serious village need you observe, possible resources for meeting the need, and obstacles to meeting the need.

RURAL ALASKA SOCIAL SERVICES PROJECT
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

NUMBER_____

INTERVIEWER_____

VILLAGE_____ DATE OF INTERVIEW_____

PERSON TO BE INTERVIWED_____

WAS INTERVIEW RELEASE FORM SIGNED? ☐ YES ☐ NO

FIRST INTRODUCE YOURSELF. MAKE CERTAIN YOU TALK TO THE PERSON NAMED ABOVE.

INTRODUCTION

Do you remember in (month), when (name), the Human Service Aide in this village talked with you? The Division of Public Welfare in Alaska has started RASSP to try to help people who live here and in other villages and the Human Services Aide is part of RASSP. Now the Welfare Division wants to know if, or how villagers find RASSP helpful. The Division also wants to know in what ways RASSP can be more helpful. The opinions you give do not affect your right to get services or aid from the Alaska Division of Public Welfare.

Are you willing to tell me if and how it was helpful, and how it could be more helpful?

IF YES, ASK THE PERSON TO SIGN THE INTERVIEW AGREEMENT (R4). Complete interview.

IF NO, PLEASE TRY TO FIND OUT WHY THE PERSON WAS NOT WILLING AND WRITE THE REASON BELOW. Send schedules to Professor Frances Feldman in envelope provided.

Form R5

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[1]Items included are only those cited in the text of this report as having particular reference for villages and villagers--Eskimo or Indian--in the Kuskokwim-Yukon region. It should be noted, however, that there is relatively little published material about the Eskimos in this particular region.

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NOTES ON PHOTOGRAPHS

Page

4a. Views of villages: 1, Mekoryuk--autumn; 2, Bethel--late spring; 3, Napakiak, early summer; 4, Akiachak, late summer

4b. Modes of transportation: 1, dog sled crossing spring tundra, Napaskiak; 2, hunter setting out on snowmobile for winter game, Kwethluk; 3, bush pilot picking up village passengers for Bethel before freezeup; 4, outboard motor on Kuskokwim in July

39a. People and social problems: 1, fatherless family in front of Lime Village home; 2, oldest man in Toksook Bay; 3, illness and advanced age, Lime Village; 4, hauling water, Toksook Bay

39b. The long bleak winters: 1, after freezeup, Hooper Bay; 2, seal hunting party from Hooper Bay; 3, seal hunter and fisherman, Hooper Bay; 4, ice-fishing, Toksook Bay

64a. Housing, old and new: 1, family dwelling, Quinhagek; 2, new house in project under construction, Emmonak; 3, poor housing, Hooper Bay; 4, four of the 15-person family in their one-room (14x18) dwelling, Hooper Bay; 5, two family members in their newly completed house, Hooper Bay

64b. Signs of community progress: 1, lumber and other supplies deposited by "North Star" in annual visit to Chevak; 2, electricity comes to Pilot Station; 3, housing project (prefabricated buildings) being assembled in Bethel, midsummer 1969

159a. Groups: 1, members of village council in session, Pilot Station; 2, community meeting in school room, Nunapitchuk; 3, family group, Tuntutuliak

159b. Human Services Aides: 1, Yukon village group with instructor during first academic training period, Bethel, July 1969; 2, two Aides (Panacretius Alexie, Holy Cross, and Lawrence John, Toksook Bay) travel to Pacific Palisades, May 1970, to tell assembled federal officials and State directors of public welfare, vocational rehabilitation, or research about RASS demonstration; 3, Thomas Charlie in his office, Tuntutuliak; 4, Andrew Brown starting off for rounds in Mountaing Village

212a. Subsistence and independence: 1, reindeer hunter, Mekoryuk; 2, hunter with spring eider duck; 3, old couple fishing, Tuntutuliak; 4, boy and bear, Kwethluk

Page

212b. Daily activities: 1, drying salmon in summer for winter food supply, Chevak; 2, 12-year old girl preparing newly caught seal for feast, Toksook Bay; 3, elderly woman making grass basket, Kwillingok